

April 20, 1929

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# AVIATION

*The Oldest American Aeronautical Magazine*





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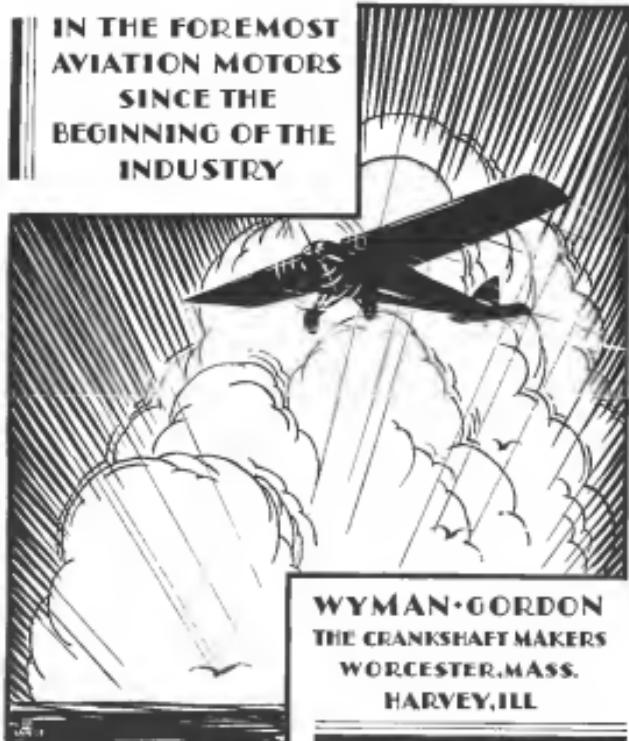
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**WE PLACE** at your command one of the world's most complete funds of knowledge about hangars and their construction.

Robertson engineers have been taking part in hangar construction since the beginnings of modern commercial aviation. They have been all over the world, learning invaluable lessons, witnessing and often participating in most of the notable experiments that have been made in methods of building and equipping hangars. They know, from actual experience, the things that will work, and the things that won't.

Such knowledge and experience in a field where there is still so much guess work and inexperience is invaluable.

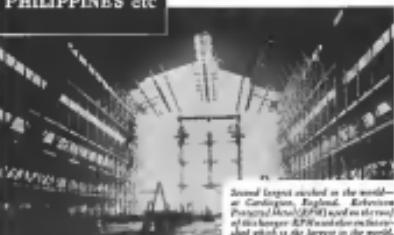
These engineers have been able to apply as much as a material that is much less costly than heavy construction... yet which will last three or four times as well as materials like unprotected metal. They have worked out definite methods for daylighting hangars so that even delicate motor repairs can be done efficiently indoors. They have established systems of ventilation that remove poisonous exhaust gases from hangars.

As a result of this knowledge, Robertson has become headquarters for hangar information. We are glad to have you consult Robertson engineers about any problem your airport may present. It will cost nothing and will not obligate you.

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Second largest enclosed in the world  
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Prepared Metal (RPM) used in several  
of this hangar. RPM is a trademark  
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## Send for this Booklet on Hangars

The Robertson engineers have prepared a booklet which gives information for and against various building materials, general information regarding possible costs, and illustrations of many types of hangars. It is a short summary of the world's last 12 years of experience with hangars. It will be of great value to anyone planning a hangar. It will be sent without charge.

# ROBERTSON

*Has the Experience*

THE 150th ISSUE for March/April AVIATION



## Speed or Regularity

**R**AILROADS many years ago reached what was to be the limit of speed from the practical operating standpoint. With regular travel there is an absolute definite limit beyond which any increase in speed is only achieved by a tremendous increase in cost. The engineer alone has not yet reached the point where increased speed is practically feasible. In fact there are almost limitless possibilities of increased speed with little increase in danger, especially when we consider that profit is determined not by the hours flown but by the miles covered during the hour.

It would seem then that next to safety the only objective of an airline operator should be the achievement of greater speed. This is essentially true, but on the other hand, the operator must be sure that his schedules are such as to allow for the minor delays which necessarily occur. A reasonable percentage of the increase in the speed which is being attained with modern planes should be reserved for making up lost time, for holding head winds, and for throttling the engine under normal conditions.

With the increasing network of airways it is becoming more important to keep up to schedules in order to make connections. Airplanes travel every other vehicle in speed, but they still lag in the regularity of their scheduled operations. In spite of the temptation to fly the country it would seem undesirable to increase the speed of the schedules at a proportionate rate with the increase of the speed of the planes.



## High Speed

**T**HE high speed record for land travel of over 230 mph which was established by Major Segrist at Dayton, was made possible through the research work done for transoceanic purposes. Both the streamlining of the automobile and the light weight power produced by the Super engine are the results of aeronautical research experimentation. Aviation has thus begun to repay at part some of the debt it owes to the automobile, and those who have engineered automobile engines. Accord-

ing to the rated advocates of high speed automobiles a system of super highways will allow automobiles of the future to travel at average speeds of 120 mph. This would certainly be more even than traveling at that speed in an airplane.



## Pooling Patents

**C**OMMERCIAL manufacturers of airplanes have not hitherto much sought patents. The truth is, that up until last year, there have not been enough commercial planes to make it worth while for the owners of patents to do any using. Commercial manufacturers have thus been lulled into the belief that no one would bother them about patents and used of them do not know what patents, if any, they are infringing.

Among the suppliers to the Government, the situation was different, and to avoid disastrous patent litigation, during the War, patents were pooled under an association called the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association.

Since the War, the Association has continued in function and, on the whole, the patent situation has worked out more satisfactorily than in most new industries. The general manager of the Association has been S. S. Beatty, and it is due largely to his quiet diplomacy that results have run as smoothly. Recently, the cross-licensing agreement has been revised, and under its new form, the license cost per plane has been lowered and put on a sliding scale. The agreement provides, as it does, some thirty thousand of the most important patents. From the members from four of nine for infringement. It also makes a provision for the rental use of new patents at a price to be set by a board of arbitration. If manufacturers of commercial planes aim to avail themselves of the services of others and avoid domestic patent suits, they must become part of some such association. There is nothing mandatory about joining the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association, but the Association has done fine work for military manufacturers and it is probable that the commercial manufacturers will find it expedient to join the Association.

# THE *Detroit Show* FROM

# A Technical Angle

THE SECOND ANNUAL AIR America Aircraft show was particularly valuable from an engineering standpoint, in that it afforded an opportunity to study more than one hundred airplane designs as well as the details of a large number of engines and accessories. Such a representation comes as nearly as possible to presenting an accurate picture of the status of aeronautical engineering.

Development in aircraft design, like other forms of progress, is a process of evolution. It is always possible, however, when a large number of airplanes are displayed, to note general design tendencies and to visualize the airplane of the future.

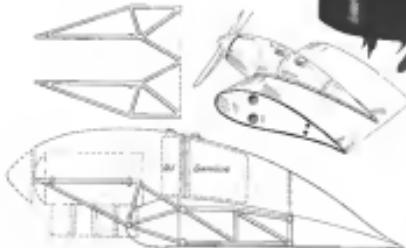
A comparison with the first All American Aircraft show, held a year ago in the same city, shows a greater proportion of airplanes of proven commercial value. It is interesting to note, however, that several of the

The importance of aerodynamic cleanliness in obtaining increased performance is being realized when, a year ago, engineers would naturally increase power to gain the same end. Many creditable attempts have been



A drawing of the new engine of the Lockheed "Kestrel" showing the "Kinner" power plant mounted in a housing which is bolted into the wing.

A drawing showing the method of adjustment of engine mounting in wing structure. The pointer and all parts are in the lower left as shown.



designs then regarded as speculative, have taken their place among the accepted types.

An attempt to simplify designs and mechanisms with the ultimate idea of high quantity production was observable on one side and several of the features which cause production "bottle necks" have been eliminated. On the other hand, there was a number of designs in which aerodynamic efficiency was considered before production problems.

In nearly all of the last mentioned cases, however, it is probable that production methods will be improved and volume increased to the point where manufacturing costs on highly efficient designs will not be prohibitive when a large number of units are to be built

made to reduce parasite drag and interference effects on the new models exhibited at Detroit.

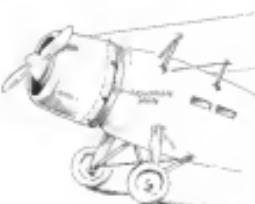
One of the most significant steps in this direction is the adaptation of the NACA low drag radial engine cooling air intakes and four of them were exhibited at the show. Increases of top speed from seven to ten mph and even greater were reported by the manufacturer whose planes exhibited this principle. On one of the cooling was made in tubes, laced together in such a manner that it could be removed without taking off the propeller. The coolings exhibited varied widely in manner design. An interesting and unusual modification of the cooling was found on the Pitcairn PA-6 biplane. This consists of a telescoped

By LESLIE E. NEVILLE

section at the rear arranged to slide longitudinally and change the size of the annular opening between fuselage and cowling. The sliding section may be moved to any desired position and is held in place by several bolts with wing nuts.

This arrangement was adopted by the Pitcairn company to provide adequate cooling for warm weather operation. An additional step in this direction would be provision of a means for controlling the device from the pilot's cockpit.

Another efficient cooling installation was found on



A drawing showing the telescoped section of the PA-6. A type of cooling installed on the Pitcairn PA-6.

the "Cobras" biplane, exhibited by the Paramount Aircraft Corp. In appearance this plane is particularly well adapted to the cooling installation. This together with the special finishing process developed by the company, produced one of the most attractive exhibits of the show. The cooling was so located into the lines of the fuselage that it greatly improved the appearance of the plane and removed the machinery look that an airplane still on the drawing board has.



Front quarter view of the "Cobras" biplane with the PA-6 type of radial engine cooling.

Tapered wings are coming into more general use and more originally is being shown in the development and shape of wing sections. Judging from the planes exhibited at Detroit, cambered wing sections are becoming popular and thicker wing sections are being used, providing greater span depth and structural strength.

Although wood is still the predominating structural material in the biplane wings, a number of the planes at the show had steel wing structures and two made of both steel and aluminum alloy. Another craft utilized fibre in the structure of the wing. Three will be described in greater detail later. Several combination wood and metal wing structures also were displayed.

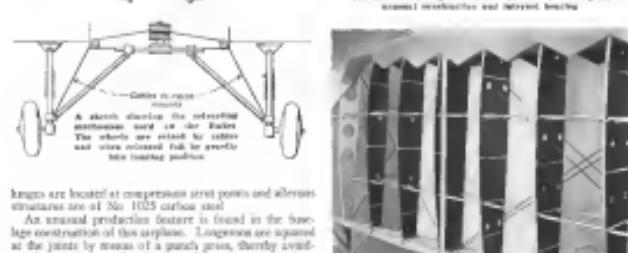
For aerodynamic wing spans as structural material an interesting and efficient arrangement has been worked out by the Pioney Manufacturing Company. By this arrangement the Pioney Company contracts with the airplane manufacturer to furnish complete sets of spars, ribs or both, finished to the specifications of the aircraft manufacturer and ready for assembly. This eliminates not only waste of raw material but uncertainty regarding the proportion of available airplane space in any given airplane, which is sometimes widely variable. A number of leading manufacturers are taking advantage of this service. Several of the biggest planes were exhibited at the Henni Center in Detroit during the show.

An interesting radial wing structure was noted in the PT-6 encol biplane developed and exhibited by the Cunningham-Ellett Aircraft Corporation, of Rochester, N. Y. This plane is one of the type having upper wings mounted high with the top of fuselage, has a gross weight of 6,000 lbs. and is powered by the 300-hp. Wright J-5 engine. Wing ribs are of Warren truss type of 4 in. O.D. 128 in. wall dimension tubing, heat treated, with special control points. The upper wing has a bay of one span, comprising upper and lower longitudinal of 14 in. O.D. by 0.69 in. wall thickness and plain steel tubing, heat treated to 125,000 lbs. per sq.in. The upper longitudinal

tailail is reinforced for a considerable distance at the outer support by a 3-in. O.D. 908-16 wall cleavage monoplane steel tubing. Main gear mounted. The landing gear are sprung by double shock absorber members. The main members are bolted to the landing gear by 5/16-in. bolts and 7/16-in. spacer tubes. Drag struts are in the planes of both upper and lower longitudinalwise and compression struts are 4-in. 357-in. wall heat treated cleavage tube Warren trusses. Aeronut

among the interesting new designs seen at Detroit was the Eagletack "Bulit," developed by the Aeronutic Aircraft Corp. The Bulit is a four place, low wing, full cantilever cabin monoplane with landing gear

as side view of the Eagletack "Bulit," developed by Aeronutic Aircraft Corp. This view was exhibited for the first time at Detroit.



struts are located at compression strut points and alternate struts are of 8-in. 1025 carbon steel.

An unusual production feature is found in the longitudinal construction of the fuselage. Struts are sprung at the joints by means of a pin and sleeve, thereby avoiding the usual critical lever points of the sheeting members and greatly facilitating production. The PT-6 will be described in greater detail in an early issue of *Aeronautics*.

The second example of duralumin and steel wing structure was that of the Cirrus powered British Blackburn "Bulit" biplane which is soon to be produced in this country. This construction consists entirely of steel spars and duralumin ribs and fairings. Rivets and bolts are used throughout and there are no welds in the primary structure. This is also true of the fuselage structure, which is steel tubing with duralumin fairings overhulls.

A duralumin wing structure is embodied in the design of the LeBlond powered Birkigt NB-3 low wing monoplane, developed in the Nichols Stanley Aeroplane Co. This structure consists mainly of a large duralumin box member. Dihedral wing is another feature of this interesting design. Several planes having stamped aluminum alloy ribs with wooden spars also were exhibited.

A specially derived airdraulic system is used and a long elliptical taper reduces induced drag.

## AVIATION April 26, 1929

## AVIATION April 26, 1929

The landing gear mechanism is simple and consists essentially of a drum and cables that drive the wheel up into strengthened compartments in the lower side of the fuselage. By releasing a trigger the landing gear can be dropped to the ground held by gravity. It is held in landing position by a double safety lock. A hand wheel mounted on the front wing beam is used to retract the landing gear.

The tail skid is a fine leaf spring with an easily detachable hardened steel shoe. The entire assembly is pivoted to the fuselage and can be removed easily when necessary. The rudder axis is set at such a position as to be vertical when the plane is resting on the ground or in a stall. Entrance doors are set in the fuselage at such an angle as to be horizontal when the plane is on the ground. The entrance is adjustable by a triple screw thread.

ANOTHER interesting design which made its first appearance at the Detroit Show was the "Ranger" exhibited by the Mohawk Aircraft Corp. The Ranger is a three place, low wing, cabin monoplane of the full cantilever type. It is powered by two four cylinder in line air cooled "Rowin" engines mounted in bays

streamlined into the upper surfaces of the 44-ft. center section panels. These structures are built up of welded sheet framing, the longitudinal 44-ft. span is 30 ft. 6 in. by 10 ft. 0 1/2 in. The enclosed steel tube engine mounting is attached to the wing structure by six bolts and four bolts are employed to mount each streamlined engine. Gasoline and oil tanks are located at the streamlined engine bays. Use of other power plants is made possible by the detachable engine mounting.

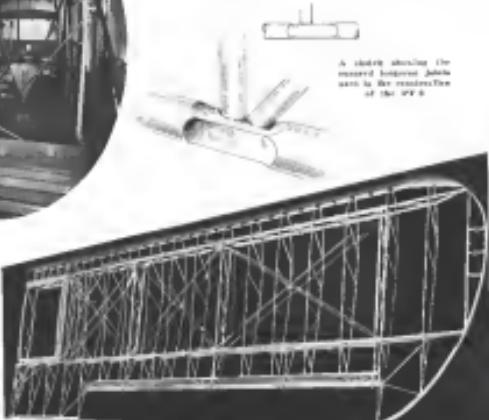
The Ranger has a wing span of 44 ft., a length of 26 ft., a gross weight of 3000 lb. and a useful load of 600 lb. The upper wing is of the internally braced full cantilever type. A split type landing gear and a tail skid are provided and both are adjustable.

Cabin biplane having upper wings supported axially above the fuselage were shown at the Chicago Show but one new craft of this type was exhibited by the Knoll Aircraft Corp. The Knoll KN-1 has a wing span of 33 ft. 6 in., an overall length of 23 ft. 11 1/2 in., a gross weight of 3000 lb. and a capacity of six persons. It is powered by a Wright Whirlwind J-5 engine and also will be available with the 300-hp. J-6 power plant.

The KN-1 has a conventional fuselage structure and a biplane wing with plywood covering. An innovative feature is the use of cantilever type rear instruments and controls. The engine instruments are placed on two small panels which are attached to the rear member of the engine mounting. Controls for the power plant also are attached to the mounting, which is of the four point type and longer in the fuselage is such a manner as to swing outward when repairs or adjustments are to be made to the engine. When engine and mounting



A view through the fuselage showing the internal engine and instrument structure of a Cessna Model 200. (Courtesy of Cessna)



The wing internal structure of the PT-6 which is built up of sheet metal spars and duralumin ribs.



## LOOKING BACK AT THE

*All-American**Aircraft Show*

By R. SIDNEY BOWEN, JR.

**T**HE second annual All-American Aircraft Show, recently held in Concourse Hall, Detroit, was the largest presentation of aircraft, engines, and equipment ever made in the history of the aeronautic industry, yet no attraction to the public at large, as judged by the attendance, was not on a par with the attraction of the 1928 show. A total of 300 planes was exhibited and of that number 49 were land monoplanes, 47 were land biplanes, one was a seaplane, one was a seaplane biplane, one was a hydrofoil, and one was a seaplane amphibian.

The individual exhibitors, as regards attractiveness of display, showed very little improvement over last year. This however, was not due entirely to the exhibitors. So great was the number of planes on exhibition that they had to be practically side-shifted together thus making it somewhat difficult for a visitor at the Show to walk about a particular plane and get a worthwhile view from all angles. There were, of course, a few exceptions to such a condition. The outstanding of these was the exhibit of Curtiss Flying Service, Inc. which showed a Curtiss "Frogfoot" biplane, a Curtiss "Charles" "Robin," a Curtiss (DOD) Robin, and two four-place Cessna monoplanes, together with Sperry陀螺仪, etc. The layout of the Curtiss Flying Service display was unique, simple and most effective. Great lighting covered the entire display space, which was surrounded by a little white picket fence, and chairs in which the weary visitor could sit and get his breaths placed at intervals along the display. That, incidentally, was an idea that was well appreciated by its creators at the Show. With things as "jammed" together as it were, visitors had no place to rest and were forced to keep wandering about on the crowded floor of the hall which dealt some too gaily with his feet.

IN FAIR, it is believed that the absence of planes to most entice many visitors to leave before they had viewed all of the Show. Had there been some central spot provided with chairs, and perhaps an orchestra to render a bit of musical entertainment, it is shown certain that the Detroit Show would have made a far more favorable impression upon the visiting public and the visiting trade.

Two other examples of attractive and conservatively spaced display were the exhibits of the Great Lakes Aircraft Co. and the Oshkosh Voight Company. The former had one of its Cirrus-powered tri-motor planes mounted in flying position upon a revolving platform. Thus one could stand still and inspect the plane at

slowly revolved. The latter was markedly set off by the fact that it was a complete amphitheater with silver and black canopies and its metal parts highly polished, with the exception of the floor which was painted a blue-green. Both displays were rope off by blue felt covered rope which gave the appearance of being separate and apart from the rest of the exhibits.

There were several other exhibits rope off in a similar manner, and although such an arrangement added a bit to the attractiveness of the display, it had its dis-



A view of the Westinghouse Electric Corp. booth with the Westinghouse Lamp Co. booth to the right.

advantages as judged by watching the spectators leave the Hall. The outstanding one was, that, to the last held. It served somewhat as a "keep-off-the-grass" sign, with the result that the spectator stayed at a distance from what he would undoubtedly have liked to inspect closely. The suggestion is made that exhibitors in future aerial shows arrange their displays so that the interested parties may have the opportunity to "see for themselves."

In the case of automobile shows, the visitor is allowed, in fact invited, to get into the car and see how the seat fits, try the gear shift, the clutch, the brake and various other things. However, at aircraft shows, the visitor has little chance to sit in a plane and investigate the "stick" and rudder pedals as he desires. It is admitted that a plane is not an automobile and that a certain amount of damage can be rendered to the former by over-enthusiastic spectators. Yet, on the other hand, it was clearly demonstrated at the Detroit Show, the pub-

lic's interest in just looking at airplanes has varied considerably. Therefore, the exhibitor should make provision whereby the spectators can get into the plane or aircraft and actually work the controls for himself. It may mean that those in charge of the exhibit will have to be more on the alert, but they should be.

As a matter of fact, exhibitor attention to visitor was most conspicuous by its absence at Detroit. At an auto show one hardly looks at a car before some salesman steps up and asks if he may be of service in explaining about a particular car. Whereas at Detroit one could virtually stare at a plane until he was blue in the face before anyone in charge of the exhibit would offer any information. When the visitor at the Detroit Show wanted information he had to ask for it.

Perhaps that condition is partly explained by the fact that in many cases those left in charge of the plane displays did not know a great deal about their own products. In past shows the executives of plane companies were to be seen at their exhibits. At the Detroit Show they



Above: The Great Lakes biplane flying position is revolving platform.

Left: The Fokker R. Whitney Aircraft Co. biplane flying a ground and a River River "Wing" with a ground and a above deck "Biplane".

were either amusing the one handled and one different meetings and trade conferences at the various Detroit hotels, or else at the Field Airport holding stop watches or competitive planes as they took off and landed. In short, the exhibitor management of aircraft shows seems to have passed into the hands of salesmen and specie yet rather untrained young men. In other words, the second annual All-American Aircraft Show was really more of a trade convention than a strictly show and at no point for a certain period of time. It has been estimated that ten tons of much heavier was conducted behind closed doors in the three leading hotels of Detroit than was exhibited outside of Convention Hall.

THAT SUCH AN AMOUNT OF BUSINESS SHOULD BE CONDUCTED outside is slightly satisfactory, but the (inter) and regional manufacturers should realize that it is the public that ultimately buys airplanes and engines. When a prospective customer visits an aircraft show, asks a question of some shop in charge of an exhibit, and receives the reply that "... I am sorry but I can not answer that, but Mr. So and So may have later, and he can tell you" ... that prospective customer is not going to come back to see Mr. So and So, nor does one of us. Of course, he is not necessarily that Mr. So and So to be blamed for an exhibitor, but it is unfortunate at all times that some one who can answer the customer's question. And, most important, only be prepared to answer questions, but to exhibitor information.

Another area lacking at the Detroit Show, and one which was also lacking at the 1928 show, was unexposed displays. Out of the 300 planes exhibited there were



not even had a drama strapped fuselages and wings. As evidenced by the crowds that did inspect the few un-covered wings and fuselages, it is our belief that that is an important factor in aircraft shown that is being overlooked by the majority of exhibitors. It not only gives the prospective dealer and distributor opportunity to inspect the good workmanship of a product, but it also gives the layman and prospective retail customer a chance to note the sturdy and well-constructed nature of the model airplane.

That fact is also true regarding aircraft engines. Believe it or not, there are many members of the aircraft



A three place *Stearman "Wing" cockpit*. Below: The transport aircraft in flight.

industry to whom the inside parts of a radial engine are in a certain sense a complete mystery. At the Wright Aeromarine booth they and the public alike were able to view this mystery. Whirlwind is in operation and set when it was all aboard. One or two other engine manufacturers also exhibited their engine models and the crowds about them indicated their value to an increasing exhibitor.

While the arrangement of apparatus and equipment exhibits was an improvement over the 1938 show, the individual exhibitors did not show off to any great advantage. One of the reasons for that was the relatively small amount of space taken up by each exhibitor. Another was the noticeable absence of "working" models. There was, perhaps, an increase in the amount of literature over the 1938 show, but it is sincerely hoped that aircraft show exhibitors, particularly airplane exhibitors, will do more about reading material in the future.

One complaint that was heard quite frequently among the exhibitors was directed at the array of small boys who visited the show and endeavored to walk off with everything that they could lay their hands on. To a certain extent the exhibitors are justified. A small boy is an aircraft show in figurative speaking, in his heart, and he will try to get hold of anything he can. The aircraft exhibitors with whom we spoke are岌岌in the position. On the other hand, it is that type of boy who will be buying planes when he grows up, or else because already engrossed in the industry itself. Whatever we can do for that now is, in a sense, building for an even better aircraft industry in the future.

To alleviate the "young boy conqueror" that existed at the Detroit Show, it might prove worth while to set aside two afternoons during which boys under a certain age could be admitted unaccompanied by an adult

During other times they would not be admitted unless they were with an older person. On the two "open" afternoons the exhibitors could watch their exhibits for "milds," and at all times be ready and willing to answer these "foolish" questions, and thereby give a boost to some future chap.

TO LEAST among the plane exhibits that attracted the attention of the young public and members of the trade were the Fokker, Storch and Reutter designs which were grouped together in one section of the hall. Here the layman was able to get a clear-cut view of the most modern means of commercial transport, and thousands of visitors were able to ignore the glass windows to get a better view of the inside of the aircraft quarters.

A cross-section of the cabin of the forthcoming new Fokker 32 passenger transport attracted all kinds of attention as it was arranged that the visitor could walk right through and actually touch things. In addition to sleeping berths, etc., there were doors so arranged along a little wall table that the air travelers could pass the time of day with a few rovers of bridge. A remark was made by one visitor that aerial bridge had its advantages in that when the bidder saw that he was unable to make his bid he could signal the pilot who would immediately go into a steep vertical bank, till the cards in the floor and that make a necessary new deal.

One rather interesting fact regarding the Detroit Show was that there were more planes at the Ford Airport than there were inside Convention Hall. A trip to the Ford Airport was an annotation education in itself, as there one found almost every type of airplane imaginable, and most of them in the air at one time or another. Had there been more means whereby each visiting plane was assigned to a certain part of the course, it could have helped materially in reducing the various grids and planes. And had there not been such an apparent whi-



The inside of *Wright's* hangar. Below the *H.L.F. enclosed ground* *Stearman* engine on the left and the *Wright 40* on the right.

side bending of the Ford Airport flying regulations it is quite possible that more plane passengers would have come to the aircraft show.

Although there were considerable manufacturer and dealer meetings and other closed meetings held at various times during show week, there were several public meetings that proved to be of considerable interest to all present. What appeared to be the most important from the standpoint of subjects discussed and attended was the flying school exhibition held on the morning of Friday, April 12.

For some time a committee headed by Phil Lowe, has been studying the flying school situation in this country

and cooperating with the Association Branch in an endeavor to straighten out school problems and place them upon a more sound and practical basis. In order to do this it was decided to give Department ratings to all schools as being Approved or Unapproved schools. Therefore a set of regulations governing the operation of approved schools was drawn up. This was the set of regulations which was presented to the members of the audience at the Friday morning meeting, in order that they might offer suggestions or criticisms as they see fit. The regulations are now being printed in mimeograph

Below: A section of the aircrafts housed in

the exhibit of *General Electric* Service.

Right: The inside of *Northwest Airways* hangar.

The *P-40* the only model plane on the table.



fore and will be distributed throughout the industry within the next ten days.

One of the more important requirements stated that a school applying for Department approval be classified as *Private Pilot, Limited Commercial Pilot or a Transport Pilot school*. A second was the equipment to be used by each type of school. In this regard it was stated that there should be at least one plane for every 15 enrolled students and that approved schools could only operate from field bases there were 100 seats for every 30 planes flying off that field.

Another regulation was that every instructor must be a transport pilot at least and that the flying instructor's rating would go along with his transport license. In other words, he must be at the same time and subject to the same examination requirements as a transport license. No restriction of an approved school is to be allowed to instruct for more than a period of six hours per day. There was considerable discussion regarding that point, as it was believed by many that a maximum of six hours was too much. Motion was made of the fact that these bases was the maximum in the Air Corps, and that the ruling as it stood would make it possible for a new flying school owner to lose his instructors to spend six hours

per day in the air with a student. On the other hand, it was pointed out that a school owner would not take the risk of losing equipment by keeping a rated out instructor at work. As the result of the discussion it is possible that the maximum of six hours may be reduced somewhat in the final regulation.

The maximum time to be allowed for the completion of the ground and flying courses were stated as follows:

Private License: Twenty-five hours of ground work, 30 hr dual and eight hours solo. All to be completed in



three months of the school is to recommend the student for Department examination.

Limited Commercial: Fifteen to twenty hours dual, and 10 hr of the required solo time must be on a color place and other than the training place. Fully hours must be spent on ground work and the entire course completed in six months.

Transport: Thirty-five to fifty hours dual. Ten hours of the required solo time must be spent on other than the training place, and 10 hours of the solo time must be spent on at least a four place cabin plane. A total of at least 100 hr ground work is required and the entire course must be completed in 18 months.

In order to hold a Department approved school rating the school must have 666 per cent of its recommended commercial pilot license students quality, and 90 per cent of the transport license recommended quality. Department inspections see to begin using approved schools on May 15. Information regarding other matters to be shown during the Show will be found in the news section of that issue.

In concluding the Detroit Show and "convention week" it might be stated that with the facilities provided the Show officials did a rather good job. Had they provided planes in rental, a little more room and by all means some way of feeding the various exhibitors, etc., that would have all helped. And had the exhibitors paid more attention to the visitors, and unduly protective customers, that sensed by their hearts, their financial returns from the Show would probably have been considerably greater than it really was. Just what the financial value of the Show was in various exhibitors is a matter for considerable speculation, as view of the fact that many of the sales unassisted during the Show were arranged for before the doors of Convention Hall were open on Saturday evening, April 16.

# Export Sales Budgets

By WESLEY FOWLER

**C**ONSIDERABLE thought is being given by United States aircraft manufacturers to the amount of money which can be spent for selling purposes. Production schedules have been drawn up so far as production in the United States during the current year will be approximately 8,000. It is believed that during 1930 the production figure of 10,000 will be reached. [These are conservative figures, as there was talk of a production of 8,000 for 1929 early last year and the talk now is of 10,000 for 1929.]

For manufacturers have considered what the foreign market will absorb in the next few years and the aircraft industry, therefore, is at a loss to know how far it can go in spending its hard-earned cash for foreign advertising, demonstrations abroad and for general advertising to get its share of foreign business. It is reasonable to believe that 10 per cent of the United States aircraft production will be exported, which would indicate that of the 8,000 airplanes produced during 1929, 800 should find their way overseas and to the following countries. Our authors have been so absorbed with problems of production, and some with meeting the demand within this country, that little or no energy has been exerted toward obtaining foreign business. Of the 4929 military and commercial planes produced during 1928 only 170 planes were exported—about four per cent—and most of these were sold away by accident than design. During the latter part of last year a few of the larger manufacturers became interested in the possibilities of foreign business.

They, however, have been working largely on the dark because there has been a lack of adequate data and practically no precedent upon which to base their activities. A few occasional foreign sales have come to them as the result of efforts of American Consuls and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

**A**NY ATTEMPT will be made here to analyze the business situation from abroad in the past four years and to budget what may be expected in the way of business during the next two years from the various countries not actively restricting the importation of American aircrafts in this last conviction, there are certain countries now restricting the importation of our aircraft which are expected to lift the ban within a short time. These nations, therefore, will be included among those for which export expectations are forecast.

It should be stated here, that it is impossible to budget foreign business in the same way that production and domestic sales quota are calculated, namely, on the basis of the quota clauses contained in distributor's and dealer's contracts. The few license distributions for airplanes have been found to be relatively small, so a contract which embodies a quota clause, and it is believed that

FIG. 1—U. S. AIRPLANE EXPORTS

Country of Destination	No.	Value	Exports		Total for 1928
			Domestic	Foreign	
Canada	12	\$104,000	8.1	32	\$104,000 16.1
U. S.	42	1,000,000	3.0	39	1,000,000 11.8
Europe	220	1,150,000	2.5	217	1,150,000 10.0
South America	10	100,000	0.9	11	100,000 1.1
China	10	100,000	0.9	11	100,000 1.1
Africa	36	85,000	6.2	4	85,000 12.2
Australia	10	240,000	1.7	7	240,000 2.3
Central America	10	100,000	0.9	1	100,000 1.0
United Kingdom	11	40,000	4.0	4	40,000 4.1
Other countries	8	180,000	11.4	1	180,000 11.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>280</b>	<b>\$3,490,000</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>280</b>	<b>\$3,490,000 11.4</b>

Figures to nearest 10,000 figures are preliminary to final verifications.

some time will elapse before market absorptions in foreign countries can be estimated upon the basis used in this country.

The following analysis is strictly of a tentative nature, with respect to the tentative, because of the many manufacturing entities into foreign marketing such as the varying financial conditions of the respective countries, the enforcement restrictions which may be placed against our aircraft, etc. It is believed that the following analysis will have a practical application toward solving the export problems of the individual manufacturer. [For example, if one plant schedules a production of 800 aircraft for 1930 and the total airplane exports from all U. S. factories during that year are 800, or ten per cent of total estimated production, that manufacturer (who should export 80 airplanes if it is to meet the quota of foreign aircrafts for the year) would then know on what foreign countries to concentrate, where to send representatives and demonstrators and where to place his foreign advertising. The following sales forecast by countries is based upon exports of airplanes from 1928 to 1932, inclusive, and data obtained from the files of the

# for AIRPLANE MANUFACTURERS

by most manufacturers, even of products other than those aeronautic, as part of the domestic market, should continue to be an excellent field.

In the estimates for 1929 and 1930 (Fig. 2) it was considered that several important manufacturers have established plants there which will mean that east shipments of airplanes will not be shown as parts of aircraft studios, but will be included under the heading of airplane parts. The 15 foreign cities in Canada are now being equipped with British planes. It is reasonable to suppose that when some of our light and inexpensive training planes, with new production exports, have the "bugs" taken out of them, that they will be sold for club use in Canada. For this reason the unit value estimate for 1930 is shown to dip in the case of Canada.

Peru is a country which although undergoing difficulties from an economic standpoint could use air transportation as a means toward economic recovery. The general aviation operations in the country and the advent of the international airline from the United States indicate that the sales forecast for this country is conservative. Because of the difficult flying conditions in Peru sales of low priced planes should be in the minority.

**T**HE NEXT country listed did not present a very large market during 1928, but 1929 starts off with the sale of one American plane to the Argentine, valued at \$50,000. The few materials that you can afford to buy opportunity for a considerable expansion there, then a favorable stage which has justified its interest in aviation and is willing to be sold further on this idea. There have been no American commercial airplanes demonstrated in that market.

Mexico at another country suffering from economic instability, and there is every reason to believe that a few more air services would help it out of its present trouble. There are several firms now in operation, all of which are American equipment. It is expected that early this year the Government will have concluded the purchase of some American military aircraft. Some of the estimated exports will undoubtedly be in the American operating tempo, but they nevertheless will be sales of aircraft for use in Mexico which will contribute to the prosperity of the country and in the coffers of our airplane factors.

There is now some important business pending in Brazil for training planes and aircraft for transport purposes. It is thought that the first manufacturer to demonstrate planes of this type in that country will find the market rather limited, but the trade and travel orders from the development of business should give a market. It will be noted that the estimated average valuations for most countries show a decrease for 1930 under those for 1929. Brazil, as well as some of the other countries, may be considered something of a price market. Furthermore, by 1930 it is thought that in-

FIG. 2—U. S. AIRPLANE EXPORTS

Country of Destination	No.	Value	Exports		Total for 1929
			Domestic	Foreign	
Canada	10	\$12,000,000	1.0	10	\$12,000,000 1.0
U. S.	40	400,000	10	390,000	400,000
Argentina	10	100,000	0.9	10	100,000 1.0
Brazil	10	100,000	0.9	10	100,000 1.0
China	10	200,000	0.8	10	200,000 0.9
Australia	10	200,000	0.8	10	200,000 0.9
Peru	10	100,000	1.0	10	100,000 1.0
United Kingdom	10	100,000	1.0	10	100,000 1.0
China	10	100,000	1.0	10	100,000 1.0
Other countries	10	100,000	1.0	10	100,000 1.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>\$12,300,000</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>\$12,300,000 1.0</b>

Figures to nearest 10,000 figures are preliminary to final verifications.

Aeronautics Service of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, on market conditions both favorable to and militating against the importation of American airplanes. The estimated earnings of certain countries may seem excessively optimistic. It is believed, however, that a market exists in each country for the approximate number of planes listed for each. Retailers during the next few years may not bear out these figures but by adequate and appropriate sales effort an individual manufacturer should at least his share to such market based. This share will depend on the size of the percentage of a factory's production that is to be exported, i. e., if 800 airplanes are produced by one factory, 80 should be exported, 40 airplanes being budgeted to local sales to Brazil during 1929, therefore, this factory should export at least 6 of them.

By grouping the countries geographically (Fig. 1) we find that Latin America, including Mexico, the West Indies and Central and South America absorbed 70 per cent of the exports (exclusive of those to Canada); that the Far East, including Australia absorbed 29 per cent and Europe 10 per cent. Canada, which is consid-

Under this heavy pressure of activity, the Department has never caught up. The various divisions and sections see still trying to find "quiet time" to discuss delay and get planes and men into the air—and to keep them there. This has been the watchword of the Aeromarine Branch since its beginning. It has never been a red-tape office, in the accepted sense.

**But the number** of planes, pilots, mechanics and students has been and continues to be one big jump ahead. Naturally, there have been regrettable instances of lost business in the industry, manufacturing to manufacturers, operators, pilots, schools, and students, simply because the Department has not had enough personnel both field and office—to keep abreast of the many problems. Nor could it "skip" one of its difficulties, and broadcast this condition to the industry. That is, no one on the "inside" could do so, and no one on the outside appreciated the unfortunate situation.

In the past two years some chronic "kinks" and some men with legitimate complaints have enlisted the Department literally, especially the Regulation Division, in its licensing, inspection, and engineering divisions. Those who complained very nearly had a chance to be free from the "state-of-the-hands,"—and the danger is not permanently past.

Here is what happened:

The Budget Bureau, accustomed to large demands and strenuous exertions by Government departments, and quite accustomed to cutting these demands and saving a dead end—failed to see any necessity for a certain item in the appropriation bill for the Aeromarine Branch "Transport expenses for inspection." This item was to cover the expenses of inspection in making their regular rounds through their district. The Department had found that regular inspections, published throughout the districts, permitted some pilots and owners to be at specified places on certain dates and be examined, or have their planes inspected. Only by these regular trips, completed over a quarter and began again at once, could licensing and inspection remain even in "one step behind."

"But," said the Budget Bureau—in effect, "let the inspectors stay 'yes.' There's no need of their running around all the time. Let the planes come to them at one established base."

That may not at first glance seem serious. But it reduces to this:

The Department could not reasonably compel an applicant to have his place of business at a "place it specified, by his plane a long distance, and make, perhaps several days "in fact," for an examination. If it did it would be up hundreds of planes, held pilots on the ground, snare a hopeful plan at the inspector's post, and savor the industry. It would have to "inspect" applicants to prove themmen at a certain point, or "such a time as convenient,"—possibly giving letters of "authorities as was first done in regulation work. The letter of authority would run on and on, with requests, until the applicant found it "convenient" to come for his examination. Any reasonable excuse would have to be accepted.

Hardly any comment on this is needed. Even the best informed pilot would wait their own pleasure to "drop in and see the inspector." Those who had any doubts about their ability would be naturally busy at some other part of the district. Months would pass before they

appeared, if at all. And even strict letters, ordering them to appear, would not help much, unless an inspector had authority to go out and look them up.

The same applies to aircraft. When and if the owners came to the Aeromarine, or the inspector they would be inspected, not otherwise. All the time, letters of authority would flourish abundantly; the misplaced orders of the industry would bring long and weary trials at the Department of Commerce.

Used—capital withered!

For without it, unless the industry got busy at once and set up its own standards, or carried out the Department's system. That is hard to expect of any industry, especially one growing so rapidly as aviation. And it would take time. During the period of change there would be chaos.

The aircraft companies would be the first to close their doors to aviation. Standards would be too uncertain for writing big policies. They would not take the word of operator, unguided by other opinion, official in nature. Prices would soar, high as those of 1936 and 1935, perhaps higher. Lesser companies would criss-cross airplanes selling from their books, until the rot was over. Operators would again have trouble in getting good steady pilots—and making them stay that way. And in the piloting game there would be no grand free-fall. A student could run wild, taking passengers where he pleased, as long as he stayed a short distance from the inspector.

To no one that this opinion would not be too far-fetched, I asked the question first mentioned in this article of Mr. Clarence M. Young, director of Aeromarine, Department of Commerce:

"If regulation were to cease for six months, we'll be worse off than when we started," he told me. "It would be chaos of the worse kind. And it would take twice as long to get even with where we are now. And we won't caught up yet."

This is no cry of "Wolf." Nor is it any aware criticism of the Budget Bureau. For naturally those not close to the industry cannot begin to appreciate what a disaster this step would be. Yet the outlook is not too bright, for this is a period of utmost public confidence in flying. The business is popular. And if the picture is not clear today to those who can so easily sniffly imagine, it may be less clear tomorrow.

The Department of Commerce can do no more than it has done. Desperately, with strong loyalty to the industry, it has tried to point out what would happen under such circumstances. But the Budget Bureau is used to strenuous plans, and probably it is accustomed to inspecting personnel details to build up departments. The Department should have the hearty support and co-operation of the industry in this matter. The industry has been too busy in the "gold rush" to learn these problems. It has been glad to receive what help it could from the Department. When it has been held up for any reason it has complained—concerned. But a little study of the situation, and understanding of support in the request for more field and office personnel would result in elimination of the trouble—and result in direct benefit to those governed by the Air Commerce Act.

This is the first of a series of air articles prepared by Mr. Kryk, who is dealing with the Aeromarine Branch, Department of Commerce. The second article will appear in early June.—Ed.

Under this heavy pressure of activity, the Department has never caught up. The various divisions and sections see still trying to find "quiet time" to discuss delay and get planes and men into the air—and to keep them there. This has been the watchword of the Aeromarine Branch since its beginning. It has never been a red-tape office, in the accepted sense.

**The TREND** in AIRPLANE *Body Design*

By H. C. WENDT  
*Body Engineer, Fairchild Aeroplane Mfg. Corp.*

**A**NY well-informed automobile salesman will tell you that the purchasing of an automobile is usually a family affair. For this reason, he will also tell you, 90 per cent of automobile sales are made through women.

He will tell you that most women have little regard for mechanical excellence, performance or speed, but base their judgment usually upon appearance and comfort. What is under the hood and in the chassis is not well understood by them and is in a matter of complete concern. Here is my thesis: It is the fact that all makes of cars now try to make their passengers from point to point without noticeable effort, they are contented to let the motor run when there and make performance and mechanical perfection far greatest. Let the exterior present a sturdy and graceful, well-proportioned design, however, let the power combination be particularly pleasing and the interior a combination of luxurious upholstery and rich appointments, and the decision is made and the car is sold.

The influence this attitude has had upon the automobile industry cannot be estimated. We do know that if automobiles had remained in the form in which they were 10 or 12 years ago, we should never have seen the automobile industry as we know it today, regardless of the degree of mechanical perfection attained. We also know that if the radio had not descended its ugly perch covered with dust and cobwebs, if the phonograph had not exceeded its usefulness and dandy home, and if both had not become articles of furniture which har-



To illustrate view of the outside of a Fairchild 80—according to the maker, nearly 9000 men nationwide buy it.

airplane industry finds from 1937. Certainly it will have no influence upon the types of planes which carry one, two, express and freight. Neither will it affect those planes which are used for combat purposes by the Army and Navy, nor highly specialized upper planes for endurance flights, exploring, map drawing, photography, mapping and the like. But we can be certain with any such limited usage as the 80. We cannot be certain with anything about the public acceptance. This means that families and individuals may write for some one of airplanes as they now realize it—automobiles, trains, railways, streams and other means of transportation, and do it just as glibly. We know that day is coming, inevitably it comes. But how can we accelerate its arrival? Simply by making

confident in our product into the public, now more receptive than ever before.

I know of one transport company which lost five passengers in a 400 mile trip just because one member of the family had a preference for orange. One look at the colors this company used, will decide the family vacation begin, settled the question. The entire family started its vacation with a main rule.

Last summer I spent many of my leisure hours of vacation flying alone and at times was privileged to have a glowing view of the public's attitude on flying. I remember one young lady who related her sister's offer of a hop with the remark: "No, the wind. That plane looks like a starved horse with its ribs sticking out!" Another declaimed with: "The black thing looks like a big coffin." These are not isolated cases. I could quote many others from my own and others' experience. Some one says that women are faddy. That research, however, is not an answer to a solution.

The colors that appear in such great favor with this sex are not a great mystery. I believe that concern of flying along non-aesthetic lines has forced that true spot. Now is it entirely confined to women. Anyone who does not understand the manner of operation of a machine must necessarily let his judgment be based upon the evidence of his senses. A very small proportion of the present day public understands the theory of flight or the operation of aircraft; therefore eye appeal cannot help but be of the greatest influence in establishing confidence.

The airplane, naturally but very little, aesthetically resounds to any other means of transportation. Instead of fearing that claudianity, we should do all in our power to lessen the difference in appearance. As the automobile is far more familiar than any other means of travel, it should serve as our starting point in exterior design. As men in our planes strike a few notes in common with those of the automobile, they will also strike lasting chords in the minds of the public. The gap between "austere, concreteness" and "air-mindedness" will be bridged by many stages if every surrounding is made environment of the same family things.

Possibly the easiest step in this direction can be made in the paint scheme. In no other branch of transportation, in fact, are other colors so often used in the public, here we seek such with an eye to the widest kind of color as we have on the average airplane today. Visibility, of course, is a factor but I do not believe that the brilliant yellow and orange which we have used on the part on wings and fuselages are necessary. Why not use a color which will be visible enough

and still neutral to any other color which might be used to decorate the plane? I believe this requirement is easily met with a hump deep shade of cream. This color is highly visible and yet blends easily with reds, maroons, and blues. Every shade of green and blue, bluish-green, and grey, the only shades I know of, will blend with this shade of cream. In this decade the fashion is to use contrasting shades of blue, or green, or in a deep sapphire and a lighter red, taking care always to keep the darker color above the lighter color, as this reduces the apparent height of any object and accentuates its length. Let our colors be bright if they may, but let us not violate common sense and good taste by piling on layers of blue, orange and violet with absolute disregard to every law of color harmony.

Consider doors and windows for a moment. Doors certainly must be wide and high enough to permit of easy entrance and exit. Great thought must be given in advance to the fuselage structure, in order that this requirement may be met and that no walls cut off the corners of the doors that profane the unattractive, unnatural shape and unnecessary intrusion in the fuselage. Before any additional air structure is definitely decided upon, every effort must be made to arrange the structure so as to widen as to eliminate unnecessarily wide gaps between windows and to grade against any of the construction's showing in the window opening.

Few persons have any idea of the load which may be safely imposed upon a plane. When a rule is imposed, their thoughts run to the uppermost limit of the structure and their confidence is at its lowest.

In the design of an automobile, window form and arrangement is considered one of the most important details. The same must be made true of an airplane if we are to reach a similar state of perfection. Windows should be long and narrow in order to accentuate the apparent length of the cabin and reduce the apparent overall height of the fuselage. Irregular shapes which do not blend in with the rest of the design must be eliminated. Each window should be framed with beautifully finished sheet metal as is the automobile's. Now it is sufficient to make this a flat piece of metal resting flat against the window. The window should be set in at least a short distance and the metal flanged, to insure it, in order to give the appearance of solidity and to eliminate the "empty" appearance which a raw edge of sheet metal always gives. A fairly wide molding just below the windows and running the full length of the fuselage, outside, this molding usually existing and not merely painted on, will again add to the apparent

sturdier length and will form a logical breaking point for the two shades of color used on the fuselage.

Another word about doors. Physiologically a door one-half inch at as wide as thick is very bad. Frequently people wrongly consider the door as the only thing between them and a drop of some thousand feet. A light door like this, and a locking door will give an added feeling of security far out of proportion to its cost and slight extra weight.

Having scrutinized and harmonized the outside appearance of the plane, and thereby having provided the public with an easy means stepping stone to a comparatively new type of transportation, we turn our attention to the interior. Here, indeed, we have an opportunity to do wonders.

To begin with, we find that the average plane, particularly the cabin plane, is entirely too narrow. For two persons to sit in it is scarcely side in comfort. Before the public will generally accept the airplane as a means of common transportation, it must be widened so that the seating comfort is even greater than it is in the automobile. Nothing is more uncomfortable than a long trip in close quarters. Passengers put up with such a thing on a short hop, take just for the thrill, but the airplane industry cannot exist on the basis of selling one ride to a person. We must sell the public on the idea of using the airplane in gay, anywhere, regardless of distance, and to do so we must provide a degree of comfort which surpasses that of any other means of

transportation and yet absolutely weather-tight in cold or storm. Other refining details such as brooches, small webs, sewing cords and passing lines should be used to give the impression of softness and minute attention to detail.

A great amount of study and work must be done to eliminate the various and numerous sources of noise in the interiors of cabin planes. Engines must be silenced so that conversation can be carried on without strain. The greatest discomfort experienced in an airplane is the terrible roar which assails the ears at all times. The public will not tolerate this very long, and unless every effort is bent towards eliminating this unpleasantness we will find it very difficult to interest passengers in a second ride. The use of silencers on engine exhausts, and the use of sound absorbing and sound reflecting materials around the entire cabin have proved effective, while circulators can be used of such materials in liberal quantities be dispersed with an passenger plane.

Of course I have heard many arguments against my procedure as I have outlined above. One argument is that it adds weight, added weight reduces the decreased performance, which again means fewer miles to the gallon. The first analysis the pilot has the plane and hence his entire judgment upon our performance.

Let us take the first point, that to a

great extent the weight of a plane has a heavy bearing in the cost of operation.

Before any judgment is made, let us consider

the cost of fuel, as the critics say, it should not

do. Doubt a good pilot is in better position to pass upon the mechanical excellence of aircraft than, let us say, the executive of a transport company or the regular air planes to be used in passenger service over an air route.

But the features which sell it to the pilot are not the same features which sell it to the public. What if a good weight plane does decrease the speed of the plane a few miles an hour compared to one with a narrow, cramped cabin? What such a consideration influence a passenger when to embark on a four or five-hour journey? Never in the world?

It is true that a certain proportion of the novelty-seeking thrill-seeker public will fly in a plane regardless of its appearance, relevance and comfort. While this proportion is more than welcome, we cannot enter proudly to it without falling short of the complete public acceptance which we goal has. It is certain that the safe and sane, conservative type of citizen will not purchase an airplane for personal use unless it compares favorably on appearance with an automobile of comparable price; mechanical excellence, of course, being taken for granted. Nor will these men, fall air transports as preferable to other means of transportation unless we give them the same degree of comfort plus greater speed, then they can get in any other sort of conveyance.

Some men in the airship industry agree that the necessity for inflation and inflation is true in principle, but say that the time is not yet ripe for it, and such treatment must be reserved for the future.

I cannot agree with that statement. The airplane has proved its utility. Fewer flights have put the public in a receptive mood towards aviation and public interest is aroused. Let us make these improvements now, before the public comes to the conclusion that the old, comfortable, slower means of transport are preferable, after all.



Another view of the Fairchild 10 cabin interior. This photograph was taken from the photo seat looking back.



The instrument board and the overhead of the new Fairchild 10 cabin monoplane.













## Airplane Fueling Truck

A NEW type of service truck for refueling airplanes was recently approved by the U. S. Army Air Corps at Wright Field, Dayton, O. The truck is manufactured by the Columbia Steel Tank Company of Kansas City, Mo., which has received an order for 1,000 more all of which will be used at Wright Field.

The truck which has been approved by the army is equipped with a 2,000 gal gasoline tank, 100 gal oil tank, 500 gal water tank and an air compressor tank. The pumping apparatus and valves controlling the several tanks are located directly in front of the main gas tank.



One of the service trucks is seen at the Tinker, Okla., stamped Airport.

and directly back of the driver's cab. Power for pumping the fuel into the tanks of the airplane or dirigible is supplied from the truck engine.

Meters and gauge gauges indicate the amount of fuel in the truck tanks and the place can be refueled or repaired without leaving the plane.

In addition to this truck, this large type service truck the Columbia Steel Tank Company is also manufacturing a smaller truck for use on smaller airports. This type truck carries smaller tanks and is manufactured with both hand pumps and power pumps.

Realizing that fuel can be taken to airplanes, especially the large transport craft and dirigibles, much easier than the plane can be towed to a fueling station has prompted the Columbia organization to expand their business to take in this phase of the aviation industry.

## Gimbolt Balancers

THE elimination of vibration in an airplane engine is of even greater importance than is an automobile engine. Airplane power plant manufacturers are following the lead of the automobile men with the result that the efficiency and life of many well known aviation engines has been greatly increased. Aviation engine manufacturers have found, however, that it is necessary to balance not only the crankshaft but also the propeller.

For propeller balancing the Gimbolt State Balancer has proved highly successful. This machine is really a fine laboratory testing device which has been developed for production purposes. Despite the large output of the machine and its simplicity of operation, it is sensitive to an accuracy of only 2 of an ounce inch. It will test this instrument of validation in propellers or similar objects for whom it is used.

For balancing propellers and other revolving parts the Gimbolt Precision (Dynamic) Balancer has many features which appeal to airplane engine manufacturers. This machine also is sensitive to 2 of an ounce inch and possesses ease of operation with accuracy attained under production schedules.



## SIDE SLIPS

By Robert R. Osborne

Mr. M. A. G. of Holyoke, Mass., sends in a note describing the "Silver Cloud," a distinctive low-wing monoplane belonging to Captain Isaac of Pittsfield, Mass., an old English army flyer, who built the craft himself. It is also known as the "Dove Tasse." It has a Chevrolet motor, a Ford radiator and other oddities which distinguish it easily from ordinary commercial ships. Its selling is said to be between five and six feet.

Obviously designed for the great group of people who, when selected for rides at the flying field, say they'd go up if they could keep one foot on the ground.

Mr. R. J. W. of Garden City, N. Y., sends in a clipping describing the purchase of "six Ryan-Massey biplanes" by some one and asks for some information on this new company.

We don't recognize the company either but suppose it is the result of one of the many mergers going on all about us.

"Babe's Dogs Get Well Earliest Boat" *Headline in N. Y. Post*

We suppose that walking around an icy and snow-drifted Antarctic landscape must be hard on one's feet.

We see by the papers that a roofing welcome and street parade program after our American demonstrators are planned for Major Segrove and The Golden Arrow crew when they arrive in London. If the same newspaper correspondence, afflicted with eye trouble, who covered the Florida speed trials are assigned to the parole we can expect something like the following:

"There was a *parade* from *Watertown* station in the *Hearts of *Pearl Harbor** today. None of the spectators seemed to notice the *team* from *London* as *are* what it was, but, according to reliable reports it *is* *accompanied* by *Major Segrove* in *the Golden Arrow* *or* *accompanied* by *the Polar Bear* and *Greater Whales*."

"Lady Heath Flies Replaces 115 Miles an Hour" *Headline*

And now what have those scoffers to say—those who used to say the airplane would never amount to anything? We predict that speeds of 125 miles an hour will even be possible next year.

"Minneapolis, April 9 (A.P.) Charles (Speed) Hobman, the winner of various competitive air flights, successfully negotiated an outside loop in a biplane today. He was said to be the first flier to perform the feat with an open cockpit."

Possibly it was the first outside loop in a biplane carrying an electric stove?



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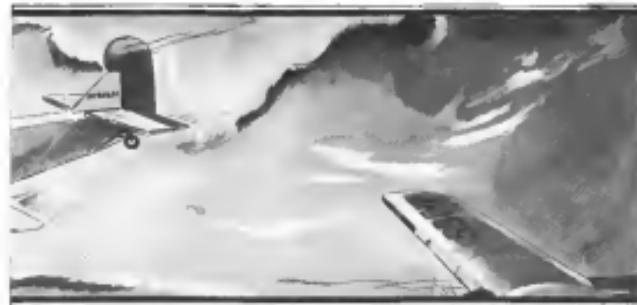
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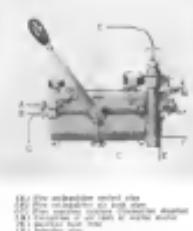
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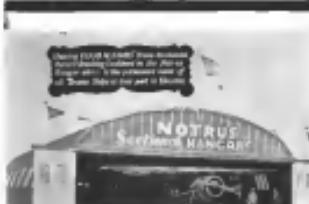
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## AVIATION

The Oldest American Agricultural Magazine

April 20, 1929



AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING  
SECTION



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### Relative Lift Distribution in Any Biplane

For F. V. Krumen

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### Parents Issued

# The High Altitude Airplane

*The First of Two Articles Discussing Engineering Problems in the Design of an Airplane to Navigate in the Stratosphere*

By B. V. KORYGIN-KROUKOVSKY

PROGRESS of civilization is marked by an ever-increasing demand for rapid transportation, for the ability to cover greater distances in a shorter time. At first man could only walk and run, then he rode horses, then came sailing ships, then railroads, automobiles and finally airplanes. Now we are forced to look for another form of transport. The need of man increases the speed over a long distance, of increasing the speed and at the same time increasing flying range. This is a difficult combination as the resistance of air increases rapidly with speed, and the use of a powerful engine to overcome it results as a large gasoline consumption and a short flying range. At the same time, the bacterial force which goes off to our wings and makes flight possible, now becomes our enemy, prevents us from increasing speed as a means required by the progress of civilization. As we looked for means of reducing friction in developing railroads and automobiles, so now we must look for means of reducing air resistance.

Already great progress has been made in improving the shape of airplane parts, in streamlining to reduce the resistance, and it is reported that no airplane is being built in Germany consisting of less than large wing, with all parts having parasite resistance, such as the fuselage, completely eliminated. Nevertheless the wings, which we must eliminate, offer large resistance. We can reduce the resistance by reducing the use of wings, but there is a limit for such a procedure. Heavy loading per square foot causes excessive speed during take-off and landing, which is a great waste of fuel and is a source of danger. While we are in search of a great speed flying between cities and countries, we want to slow down to a low, safe speed while starting off and coming to a terminal. We want to find some way to reduce the air resistance, and to reach a great speed without increasing the use of our wings and without increasing our landing speed. And fortunately the very nature of the airplane and of the atmosphere in which this plane, the way of using it.

The atmosphere is not homogeneous, the air has the highest pressure and density at the ground level, and both the pressure and the density rapidly diminish with the altitude. The curves of Fig. 1 show that at the altitude of 22,000 ft the air is only half as dense as at the sea level, and that at the altitude of 70,000 ft the density is reduced 25 times. The airplane, which by its very conception, is a machine capable of flying from the ground and of changing its altitude, can utilize the dense air at lower altitude for take-off and landing, and can utilize the reduced density of higher altitudes for reduction of air resistance and for increase in speed. In this paper we will consider how such a utilization is

possible at the present state of aeronautical engineering, and what advantages we can derive therefrom. In this connection we will refrain from any speculation as to what will be made possible by new inventions such as gas turbines and jet propellers, and will consider only the present state of aeronautical engineering, and the aeronautical and aircraft which are now to be immediately available. This is not to say that new inventions will follow as soon as their need is clearly established, but there is also no question that at early stages of the new development we will have to rely not on theory, but on our present knowledge. It is essentially the purpose of

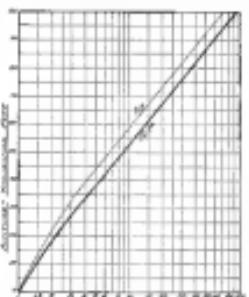


Fig. 1—Performance and density ratio variation with altitude  
this paper to consider what we can do with the resources available at present, with only such improvements as appear to within easy reach.

The common way to handle an airplane on a transoceanic flight is to take-off at a certain low speed, and at a certain large angle of incidence, to climb to a small altitude and then to reduce the angle of incidence by means of the elevator, thereby reducing the air resistance and increasing the speed. During the climb at a large angle of incidence comparatively small part of the engine power is needed for the resistance, and the excess of available power is used for the climb. In a horizontal flight, when the angle of incidence is reduced, the excess of power is used to overcome the extra air resistance pro-

duced by the increased speed. The maximum speed attainable in that way depends on the weight carried per horsepower and on the minimum speed of the airplane. The lower the minimum speed, the larger must be the wing area, the larger will be the air resistance, and the lower therefore will be the maximum speed. It has been shown by Delft that maximum speed of an airplane can be closely estimated by the formula:

$$(1) \quad V_{max} = K \eta^{1/3} P_{max}^{1/4} \left( \frac{W}{P} \right)^{1/10}$$

where:

$P_{max}$  is the maximum speed in horizontal flight

$P_{max}$  is the minimum, or stalling speed

$W$  gross weight of airplane

$P$  engine horsepower

$\eta$  propeller efficiency

$K$  resistance coefficient

For modern commercial airplanes we can assume

$$K \eta^{1/3} = 21$$

and formula (1) then becomes

$$(2) \quad V_{max} = 21 P_{max}^{1/4} \left( \frac{W}{P} \right)^{1/10}$$

In order to put the discussion on a economic basis, let us assume a typical six seat airplane with the following characteristics:

Gross weight	4,250 lb
Engine power	425 hp
Wing area	380 sq ft
Maximum lift coefficient	1.40
Minimum speed	55 mph

The maximum speed then works out as

$$V_{max} = 21 \times 55^{1/4} \times 10^{-10} = 141 \text{ mph.}$$

In this paper we want to investigate a different method of handling an airplane, by which the initial large angle of incidence is not reduced, but is kept constant, and the increase of speed is obtained by virtue of decreased or density of the airplane climb to a high altitude. At present there is no way to increase the engine power or mass without device assistance. The engine power cannot be increased regardless of the altitude, and therefore we will investigate and justify the validity of this assumption. At a ground level our airplane can fly at a certain air speed  $V_{max}$  slightly exceeding the maximum speed  $V_{max}$  and corresponding to the minimum power consumption  $P_{min}$ . The wings develop the lift  $L$  equal to the weight of the airplane, and its resistance  $D$  is determined by its  $L/D$  ratio. The  $L/D$  ratio of an airplane depends only on its angle of incidence and does not depend appreciably on either speed or air density. In our case the angle of incidence remains constant during the climb, and therefore the  $L/D$  ratio also remains constant; the lift is always equal to the weight, regardless of the altitude, and therefore resistance also remains constant. This is the reason necessarily that the drag also remains constant. At the same time the air density decreases with altitude, the speed of the airplane increases in order to maintain the same lift, and this increase of speed also serves to minimize the same drag. Turning to the mathematical expression we can write for the airplane

— 9 A.C.A. Technical Report No. 115

flying at a speed of minimum power consumption near the ground:

$$(3) \quad L = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 C_L C_D$$

and at any other altitude:

$$(4) \quad L = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 C_L C_D$$

where:

$L$  = lift equal to weight of the airplane

$C_L$  = lift coefficient which is constant as long as the angle of incidence is constant

$\rho$  = air density

$V$  = air speed at any altitude

$V_0$  = air speed at ground level

$\rho_0$  = air density at ground level

Equation (3) and (4) and canceling equal constant quantities we get:

$$\rho_0 V_0^2 = \rho V^2$$

or

$$(5) \quad \frac{V}{V_0} = \left( \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right)^{1/2}$$

i.e., as the airplane climbs at a constant angle of incidence its speed increases in inverse proportion to the square root of air density. The power required is obtained by multiplying the drag by the air speed, and as the drag in this case remains constant the power required is directly proportional to the air speed, and therefore is inversely proportional to square root of the air density, i.e.

$$(6) \quad \frac{P}{P_0} = \left( \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right)^{1/2}$$

Expressions (5) and (6) allow us to determine the ceiling and the speed of the airplane engaged with some kind of a mechanism managing constant engine power at any altitude, and flying at a constant angle of incidence. We observe that in this case the power is directly proportional to the power, and not to the cube root of the power as was the case when the flight at a constant altitude and varying angle of incidence was considered. This observation makes us expect that much higher speed may be attained by flying at a large angle of incidence at a great altitude, than flying at reduced angle of incidence near ground level.

It has been shown by E. P. Warner<sup>1</sup> that minimum power required for the maintenance of the horizontal flight at ground level can be estimated by the formula:

$$(7) \quad P_0 = \frac{W V^2}{128}$$

Substituting this value of  $P_0$  in expression (6), and assuming the propeller efficiency equal to 0.85, which is justifiable in view of the large pitch necessary for the high altitude airplane, we get

$$(8) \quad \frac{V}{V_0} = \frac{P}{P_0} = \frac{317}{\frac{W V^2}{128}}$$

substituting:

$$\frac{V}{V_0} = \frac{1}{\rho} \rho_0 V_0^2 C_L C_D$$

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and assuming the value of  $C_L = 1.20$  an appropriate for the speed of minimum power consumption, evaluating  $s_c = 0.0237$  and introducing the friction coefficient of  $(50/13)^2$  so as to get the speed  $V$  in miles per hour we get

$$(9) \quad \frac{V}{V_s} = \left( \frac{W}{F} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{2.120}{W/F},$$

or finally

$$(10) \quad V = \frac{2.120}{W/F}.$$

This is a very interesting and important result, showing that the airspeed is kept at a constant angle of incidence, and the high speed is obtained by means of the climb in the altitude of much reduced air density the maximum speed attainable is independent of the maximum speed.

The airplane with small wing area, high landing speed, and correspondingly high speed of minimum power consumption  $V_s$ , will not be able to climb very high, as shown by the value of the ratio  $W/F$  as obtained from (9) and the speed will be dependent but little. The airplane with large wing area, however, will be able to climb higher, and its speed will be dependent much more. The maximum speed at the critical altitude,  $V$ , is to be found in the form, and will depend only on power loading  $W/F$ . We estimated above that a typical 425-lb airplane with a landing speed of 35 m.p.h. is able to attain the high speed of 141 m.p.h. at ground level. Observing that  $W/F = 10$  lb per hp, we can estimate from (10) that we kept it at a large angle of incidence and made it climb at a high altitude its maximum speed at the ceiling would be 212 m.p.h. the improvement of 56 per cent over the ground level speed. Assuming the speed of minimum power consumption at sea level to be 60 m.p.h. corresponding to the landing speed of 35 m.p.h., we obtain from (9)

$$\frac{V}{V_s} = \frac{2.120}{\left( 10 \times 0.60 \right)^{1/2}} = 12.5$$

The corresponding altitude is found by consulting the curves of Fig. 1 to be about 6,000 ft.

It is interesting to investigate the properties of the airplane which lead to the largest gain in speed at the altitude over that at ground level. Dividing formula (9) by (2) and denoting by  $V_s$  the maximum speed at the ground level, by  $V$  the maximum speed at the altitude, and by  $V_m$  the maximum speed at the ground level, we get

$$(11) \quad \frac{V_s}{V_m} = \frac{301}{\left( \frac{W}{F} V_s \right)^{1/2}}.$$

This shows that the gain made possible by high altitude flying increases with the decrease of the landing speed, and with the decrease of the power loading. The tendency toward decreased power loading is the predominating trend of aeronautical engineering, and every year we see more powerful engines and lower loadings per horsepower. Every year, therefore, the gain made due to high altitude flying will increase, until it becomes no longer to be neglected. At the present time already a gain of 50 per cent can be expected, as has been shown by the example worked out earlier in this paper. The tendency towards increased landing speeds can be also observed in the present trend of

aeronautical engineering, but this can be considered only as a sacrifice in order to obtain higher maximum speed. This sacrifice can be met necessarily in the design of a high altitude airplane.

Next we will consider the effect of high altitude flying on the range, or distance which the airplane can cover with its supply of fuel. There are two distinct problems: one—the landing range of *several* airplanes, and second—the normal range of *service* airplanes. The range of landing airplanes lies at about the constant angle of incidence at which its  $L/D$  ratio is the best. In this respect it is similar to the high altitude airplane. The difference lies in the fact that as fuel is consumed, and lighter weight lessens the excess of available power, this power in a high altitude airplane is used for the climb, while in ordinary method of control the engine is throttled in order to economize the fuel. As in both cases the angle of incidence, and the  $L/D$  ratio remain constant, the range can be estimated by Brugge's equation:

$$(12) \quad \text{Range in miles} = 863.5 \left( \frac{F}{W} \right) \left( \frac{a}{c} \right) \log \left( \frac{W/F}{W/F_s} \right),$$

where

$W$  = total gross weight in pounds.

$F$  = fuel gross weight in pounds.

$a$  = propeller efficiency at cruising speed.

$c$  = average specific fuel consumption.

It will be shown later that in a high altitude airplane, ground efficiency probably will be used and that the propeller always will operate at a constant and a very high efficiency, which we can estimate at least at 80 per cent. The engine runs nearly at full throttle and the specific fuel consumption is taken at about 0.65 lb per hp-hour. Then we get

$$n/C = 0.65/0.35 = 1.85$$

An airplane operated at a low altitude and with varying throttle openings, the propeller is usually not geared and its efficiency never exceeds about 70 per cent. The specific fuel consumption also varies from 0.85 lb per hp-hour at full throttle at the beginning of the flight, to 0.75 lb per hp at half throttle at the end of  $s$ , average fuel consumption being about 0.65 lb per hp-hour. Using these figures we get

$$n/C = 0.75/0.35 = 1.80$$

Thus we see that while the same law governs the range range of a common and a high altitude airplane, the details of the propeller efficiency and of fuel consumption give the latter the advantage of 1.85/1.80, or about 35 per cent improvement in the range.

In the above discussion we assumed the airplane can not be forced to break the distance record and flying therefore at the best  $L/D$  ratio and at a low speed. In ordinary cases, in most of from 300 to 600 m.p.h., airplanes are not flown at such a low speed, and under "cruising" speed, which is an arbitrary reduced speed adopted in order to save the engine. Usually it is between 75 per cent and 85 per cent of high speed. The range at such an arbitrary "cruising" speed is inversely proportional to the range at high speed, and the high altitude airplane showing 30 per cent improvement in speed for the same engine power, will show equal improvement in the service range, i.e., if it is considered practical to break the route of a low flying airplane into 500 m.p.h. runs, these runs can be increased to 750 m.p.h. for the high altitude airplane.

We have shown that flying at a very high altitude will

allow us to increase the speed some 50 per cent at the same fuel loading, and on present-day aeronautical airplane the range at which the maximum speed possible at sea level will increase further as the power loading will decrease with the development of more powerful and lighter engines. We have shown that this increase of speed will be accompanied by an increase of the range, thus reducing the necessary number of stops on long routes, and thereby increasing the average speed still more. Moreover we have shown that this increase of high speed will not be obtained at the sacrifice of landing speed, as it is at present, and that there will be no objection to keeping the landing speed as low as desired for safety, and in order to use landing fields of moderate size. These are the basic advantages of the high altitude airplane, but they are not the only advantages. Improved safety, comfort of the passengers, ease of navigation, etc., are other important advantages. However, we will postpone the discussion of these, until we will advance further proofs that high altitude flying

clearly simulates the conditions found at the altitudes it has been found<sup>1</sup> that relation of the power to the density can be approximated by the expression

$$HP = (p/v)^{1/2}$$

The variation of the horsepower with altitude calculated by this formula is plotted on Fig. 2. It will be observed that at the altitude of 20,000 ft. it is only about 41 per cent of the original horsepower is available and at 45,000 ft. is only 10 per cent is available.

As the decrease of engine power occurs due to decrease in density, it is evident that it can be prevented by compressing the air, and maintaining the ground pressure at the carburetor. A good deal of work has been done on the development of superchargers in all countries, and three distinct types have been evolved and brought to sufficient perfection for practical use. These types are the Roots Supercharger driven at moderate speed by a pair of gears from the engine crankshaft, the centrifugal supercharger driven at a very high speed by means of a gear train from the engine crankshaft, and the Turbo compressor, or the centrifugal supercharger driven by a turbine operated by exhaust gases. The first two types are selected in that the power needed to compress the air is taken from the crankshaft and should be subtracted from the brake horsepower of the engine causing the reduction of the horsepower with altitude, although not to the same as in case of the unsupercharged engine. The work needed to compress the air substantially is constant.

$$(13) \quad HP_s = \frac{341}{31,000} \frac{n}{n-1} \frac{1}{K} \left[ \left( \frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{\frac{n-1}{n}} - 1 \right],$$

where

$HP_s$  = Horsepower needed to drive the supercharger.

$n$  = The ratio of specific heat of gas at constant pressure to that at constant volume. For the air  $n = 1.405$ .

$K$  = Efficiency of the supercharger including driving gears.

$p$  = Pressure of the air at altitude in lb per cu.in.

$p_0$  = Pressure of the air at sea level.

$v$  = Volume of the air at pressure  $p$  in cu.in.

The average aircraft engine consumes about  $\frac{1}{3}$  lb of gasoline per horsepower per hour, and requires for its operation 12 m.p.h. air speed at sea level, and about 15 times as much air practically. Taking the density of the air as normal conditions as 0.02608 lb per cu.in., the volume of the air required per horsepower per minute would be as

$$0.5 \times 15/0.02608 \times 60 = 3.64 \text{ cu.in.}$$

The weight of the air needed for combustion of  $\frac{1}{3}$  lb of gasoline and for production of one brake horsepower does not change with altitude. As the pressure  $p$  decreases, the volume  $v$  increases proportionally, and the product  $p v$  remains constant as long as temperature remains constant. The normal temperature at sea level is usually taken as 60° F., or 268 deg. C absolute and in a "Standard Atmosphere" it decreases at the rate of 1.98 deg. C per thousand feet up to the altitude of about 35,000 ft., after which it remains constant at 238° F. at the low atmospheric pressure and temperature

deg C also or  $-68$  deg F. The quantities  $p$ ,  $v$  and  $T$  are related by the law:

$$pv = RT$$

substituting the figures found at normal ground conditions:

$$p = p_0 = 14.7 \text{ lb/in}^2$$

$$v = 1.64 \text{ cu ft}$$

$$T = 288 \text{ deg C}$$

we get

$$pv = 0.084 T$$

And substituting all these constants into equation (13), we obtain the horsepower absorbed by the supercharger per brake horsepower of the engine as:

$$(14) \quad HP_s = \frac{0.00027}{K} T \left[ \left( \frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{1.4} - 1 \right]$$

All superchargers used at the present were developed with a single and practical purpose of improving the performance of military aircraft, and were designed to obtain the fuel economy advantages at up to about 30,000 ft. At these altitudes the pressure ratio  $p/p_0$  is only 2.18, and it is possible to develop superchargers in a single stage compressor with the efficiency as high as 70 per cent. In this paper, however, we are considering the possibility of flying at a much higher altitude, somewhere between 50,000 and 100,000 ft, at which the pressure ratio varies from 9 to 95. It is practically impossible to obtain such a pressure ratio in a single-stage compressor, and we will assume that a three-stage compressor is used, with correspondingly lower efficiency, for which 40 per cent may be assumed as a fair figure. Substituting the figure of 0.40 for  $K$ , multiplying the coefficient 0.00027 by three, and dividing the expression 0.29 by three, we obtain finally the power absorbed per horsepower of the engine by a three-stage supercharger as:

$$(15) \quad HP_s = 0.0006 T \left[ \left( \frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{1.4} - 1 \right]$$

This power has to be subtracted from the brake horsepower in order to obtain the net horsepower of the engine. However, the brake horsepower increases somewhat as the brake power remains constant, due to the supercharger, and the engine torque decreases. When an engine works at the ground level, the combustion chamber at the end of the exhaust stroke is filled with exhaust gases at slightly above atmospheric pressure. The fresh charge taken in on the intake stroke is somewhat less than therefore as the fraction of the gas taken. When the engine works at a high altitude in a very rarefied atmosphere, the pressure of the exhaust gases filling the compression chamber is also very low, and as soon as the exhaust valve is closed and the intake valve is open, the fresh charge from the supercharger moves in and fills the compression chamber area before the intake stroke begins. In the extreme case of the engine with the exhaust opening into an absolute vacuum, the volume of the fresh charge will be equal to the displacement of the piston plus the volume of compression chamber. At the normal rate of ascent of engines in flight it is about 20 per cent of the piston displacement (5 to 1 compression ratio), the volume of the fresh charge will be increased by 20 per cent, and so the power output will be increased. Experiments made on engines having into the exhaust atmosphere<sup>2</sup> showed that their

horsepower increases 1.3 per cent per pound of pressure difference between the exhaust and the intake. For the extreme case of the engine exhausting in vacuum we get

$$6 HP_s = 1.3 \times 14.7 = 19.1 \text{ per cent}$$

which checks well with the theoretical reasoning given above.

The net horsepower of the engine equipped with mechanically driven three-stage supercharger maintaining the normal pressure of 14.7 lb per sq in at the carburetor, and exhausting into the atmosphere can be expressed as:

$$(16) \quad \frac{HP \text{ at altitude}}{HP \text{ at ground}} = 1 + 0.013(p - p_0) - 0.0006 T \left[ \left( \frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{1.4} - 1 \right]$$

The variation of the horsepower computed by means of that formula is plotted against the altitude in Fig. 2. It will be observed that the horsepower is reduced to 65 per cent of the rated value at the altitude of 30,000 ft, and decreases to nothing at the altitude of 100,000 ft. We must conclude, therefore, that *absoluta* as the mechanically driven superchargers are for the lifting strength appearing at the altitude of 20,000 ft, they are *absoluta* for the *power* of high altitude aircraft. They are *absoluta* for the altitudes of 50,000 and 100,000 ft.

Now it remains for us to consider the action of a compressor driven by a turbine operated by exhaust gases, generally known as the "Turbo-Supercharger." Fig. 3 shows the diagram of such a turbo-supercharger, which was originally invented by Professor Roots, and



Fig. 2 - Photograph showing a modern type of turbo-supercharger installed in an aircraft engine.

was subsequently developed independently by himself in France, and by the U. S. Air Service and General Electric Co. in America. The action of this turbo-supercharger probably can be explained best by quoting from a discussion by the man responsible for its development in America—Dr. S. A. Moss:<sup>3</sup>

"... The exhaustive chambers are connected to an exhaust manifold, *a*, which supplies gases to nozzles that direct these gases onto a turbine-wheel, *b*. The turbine-wheel drives the centrifugal compressor, *c*, which takes in and compresses air and discharges it to

the carburetor, *d*, and thence to the intake manifold, *e*, of the engine as shown in Fig. 4.

At an altitude of 20,000 ft, the pressure of the atmosphere surrounding an airplane is about one-half of that at sea-level. At an altitude of 35,000 ft, the surrounding atmosphere pressure is about one-quarter of that at sea-level. At these great altitudes, full-sea-level pressure is maintained in the exhaust manifold when such a supercharger is used. Outside of the turbine-wheel, the exhaust pressure due to the great altitude exists. The exhaust-gases pass through the nozzle at a high velocity due to the pressure difference and impinge on the turbine-wheel. This serves to compress the air from the low pressure at the great altitude to full-sea-level pressure, which is maintained in the carburetor intake manifold, so that the engine receives its charge at full-sea-level pressure."

Let us consider now the amount of power which can be obtained from the expansion of the hot exhaust gases from the pressure of 14.7 lb in the exhaust manifold to a reduced atmospheric pressure at a high altitude. The work done by the expanding gas, as well as the work done on the gas in compressing it is expressed by formula (15), and we merely have to express the values of  $v$  and  $p$  for the exhaust gas. The air entering the cylinders of the engine consists roughly of 1 part of gaseous vapor by weight, 3 parts of oxygen and 12 parts of nitrogen. The exhaust gases leaving the cylinders consist of 1 part of water vapor, 3 parts

of the air. The power available from the expansion of the exhaust gases can be determined therefore by formula (14), and the ratio of the power  $HP_s$  required to compress the air in a single-stage supercharger to the power  $HP_s$  made available by the expansion of the exhaust gases in the turbine wheel can be

$$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = \frac{T_0}{T_0 - T_2}$$

$$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = \frac{T_0}{T_0 - T_2}$$

Where  $T_0$  is the absolute temperature of the surrounding air equal to 210 deg C at the altitude above 30,000 ft, and  $T_2$  is the absolute temperature of the gases in the exhaust manifold, which can be taken as 1,000 deg C. Substituting these figures we get:

$$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = 0.218$$

i.e., the turbo-supercharger will be capable of compressing the air to normal pressure of 14.7 lb per sq in. at any altitude, provided its overall efficiency and  $HP$  are not less than 21.8 per cent. This figure can be further reduced by the use of a three-stage compressor. The power required to drive the three-stage compressor will be less as is expressed by

$$HP_s = 0.0038 T_0 \left[ \left( \frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{1.4} - 1 \right]$$

and the ratio of this power to the power  $HP_s$  delivered by exhaust gases is determined by expression (14) as

$$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = 2 \frac{T_0}{T_0 - T_2} \left( \frac{p}{p_0} \right)^{1.4} - 1$$

This ratio is now dependent on the ratio  $p/p_0$ , as well as on the ratio of temperatures  $T_0/T_2$ . For the state ratio of temperatures of 210/1,000, it works for the different altitudes as follows:

at 30,000 ft	$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = 0.382$
at 75,000 ft	$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = 0.159$
at 100,000 ft	$\frac{HP_s}{HP} = 0.038$

This decrease of the ratio  $HP_s/HP_s$  with altitude is a very beneficial feature, because it compensates for the increased amount of air which must be delivered to the engine in view of the decreasing oxygen content, the property of the atmosphere which we did not take into account before. It is well known that air is a mixture of gases, mostly of the oxygen and nitrogen. These two gases are not of the same density, but oxygen is slightly heavier than air and nitrogen slightly lighter. The difference in density is due to the fact that the lower layers of the atmosphere are 35,000 ft in thickness, and the density decreases with the increase of altitude. The oxygen is well mixed, and the nitrogen is well mixed. Above the altitude of 32,000 ft the temperature is uniform, and the disturbances are absent, as the gases begin to separate because of the difference in their density, and the oxygen being the heavier settles down. This creates large oxygen content in the lower strata of the atmosphere and smaller content in the upper strata, the actual percentage content of the oxygen in the air varying as follows:<sup>4</sup>

up to 35,000 ft	21 per cent
at 50,000 ft	20 per cent
at 75,000 ft	17 per cent
at 100,000 ft	15 per cent

As the percentage of the oxygen in the air decreases, the volume of the air to be supplied to the engine must be increased, increasing in the same proportion the power required to drive the supercharger. Taking this

<sup>2</sup> Models "The Principles of Aerodynamics" Page 115

<sup>3</sup> A. E. TRANSMISSIONS Vol. 11, Part 3, Page 161

late aircraft we obtain finally the following values for the ratio of  $MP_a/MP_s$ :

at 50,000 ft.	19.1 per cent
at 75,000 ft.	19.6 per cent
at 100,000 ft.	19.3 per cent

On basis of these figures we can say that an order to supply air at normal pressure to the engine at any altitude the turbo-supercharger must have the maximum overall efficiency of about 30 per cent. This figure appears to be quite modest and should not be difficult to attain.

The fact that at altitudes above 25,000 ft. or in the stratosphere, the exhaust gases gradually separate and tend to arrange themselves in order of their molecular weight, opens way to interesting speculate. The maximum amount of total air and oxygen, but a considerable amount of hydrogen, which is almost absent at the lower levels, oxygen, nitrogen, and predominance in upper layers. As the percentage of oxygen decreases and the percentage of hydrogen increases with altitude, the proportion is reversed at the altitude of about 200,000 ft., where their mixture is just correct for combustion. Indeed, combustion explosions could have been caused by burning writers, were it not for the fact that combustion is impossible when the mixture is too稀疏, as it is at the altitude of 200,000 ft. However, if this mixture were compressed by a supercharger and by the piston of an engine, it would burn very well and would supply the power necessary for flight. Were an airplane built powerful enough to reach the altitude of 200,000 ft., it could remain there for sufficient length of time, and could cover any distance at a speed of some 3,000 mph using atmosphere itself as a fuel. To be able to do so, however, it must possess about 90 times the maximum power it requires at horizontal flight at sea level.

So far we have considered only the question of the power required to drive the supercharger and of the net horsepower of the engine. We must also consider the need to provide air to the engine in the expansion of exhaust gases to supply the engine with air needed for full power combustion at all altitudes, provided that efficiency of the turbo-supercharger is not less than 20 per cent. Now we will consider whether it is possible or practical to provide the supercharger equipment of sufficient size and of so what will be the probable weight of it. The existing supercharged *Ju 88* (for use with a 400-hp engine, and capable of maintaining full pressure up to 30,000 ft. and about 150 lb. to the weight of the power plant) has a pressure ratio of 20/1. The pressure ratio at 20,000 ft. is equal to only 2.18, and the superchargers are built therefore as single-stage compressors with fairly high mechanical efficiency, and maximum  $MP_a$  to 80 by 80. Now, if it is assumed, please note, that the ratio of the power of the engine to the pressure ratio is the same as at the altitude of 75,000 ft., it can be reached in a very near future. From formula (15) we estimate that a supercharger needed to supply a 400-hp engine with air at such an altitude will require 356 hp, i.e., about 4 times the power of the existing superchargers. It is a quite general rule of mechanical engineering that reducing the size of any machine makes all problems easier, while with increase of use all difficulties grow very rapidly. There is little doubt that powerful gas turbines will be built in the future, but in the near future, with which alone we are concerned in this paper,

it is not probable that 356-hp gas turbine can be built. Fortunately we do not have to do it, as we can get along quite well by using three or four superchargers of the successive stages.

The *Ruston* supercharger is shown in Fig. 5, where (a) shows the inlet of exhaust gases, which must be connected to the exhaust manifold of the engine, (b) shows the outlet for exhaust gases from the surfaces, (c) shows the air inlet and (d) the air outlet leading to the intake manifold of the engine. It is quite possible to connect four turbines so that outlet of one is connected with the inlet of the other, and the exhaust gases expand successively through the four turbines. The pressure ratio at the altitude of 75,000 ft. is 29.2, and the expansion per turbine is

$$\sqrt{29.2} = 5.42$$

or, quite reasonable. If the connecting manifolds are made short and well insulated in order to prevent heat loss, expansion of the gas can be considered to be almost adiabatic, and formula (14) can be applied. In a similar way the four compressors will be connected

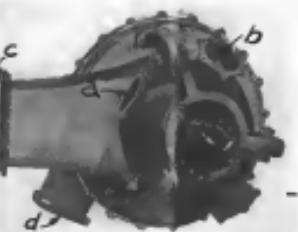


Fig. 5.—The *Ruston* supercharger.

in series each one compressing the air 2.22 times, total compression being 2.22<sup>4</sup> or 22.2 times. Contrary to the turbine connections, the compressor connections should be constructed so as to have plenty of the cooling surface exposed to the air stream, so that heat generated by the compressors in each stage can be dissipated.

When we speak of the supercharger of existing size, we mean that vital parts such as the turbine wheel, the shaft and the impeller are of the existing size and type. Of course, there will be some difference in details, in particular in the number of stages through which the exhaust gases are directed onto the turbine wheel. As the gases expand, the number or size of the turbines in consecutive stages will have to be increased. In a similar way the size of inlet connections to the compressors will have to be increased, and probably the impeller wheel will have to be made wider in the low pressure stage. Possibly it will be found expedient to increase the compression ratio per stage, reducing the number of stages to those, and assigning two turbo-superchargers to handle the large volume of rarefied air in the first compression

stage, supplying it to single turbo-compressors of the second and third stages. This, however, are details to be decided by the engineer. All that can be said in the fact that it is not only possible, but comparatively easy to provide superchargers of sufficient capacity.

The weight added by an *oily type* turbo-compressor was 150 lb. for a 400-hp engine, which would make 600 lb. for the four stage turbo-supercharger discussed above. However, in combining four superchargers,

some economies in weight may be effected, and we want allow for the improvements made as the time goes on, and for the fact that the weight of the superchargers will be reduced by the fact that it is not only possible, but comparatively easy to provide superchargers of sufficient capacity.

In Part II, which will appear in the May 12 issue of the *Aeronautical Engineering Section* of *AVIATION*, the problems of engine cooling, propeller selection and cabin design of the high altitude airplane will be discussed.

## TECHNICAL REVIEWS

*NACA Technical Report No. 305. The Gaseous Explosive Reaction, a Study of The Kinetics of Explosive Powders*, by W. P. Shultz.

This report deals with the results of a series of studies of the kinetics of gaseous explosive reactions where the fuel under observation, instead of being a simple gas, is a known mixture of simple gases. In the practical application of the gaseous explosive reaction as a source of power in the gas engine, the fuels employed are composite with characteristics that are apt to be due to the characteristics of their components and hence may be somewhat complex. The simplest problem that could be proposed in an investigation either of the thermodynamics or kinetics of the gaseous explosive reaction is a composite fuel would seem to be a separate study of the reaction characteristics of each component of the fuel and then a study of the reaction characteristics of the various known mixtures of these components. Turning composite fuels more and more complex. That is the order followed in the simple kinetic data described.

*NACA Technical Report No. 269, The Relation of Observed Airplane Performance to Standard Conditions*, by Walter S. Dill.

This report shows how the actual performance of an airplane varies with air temperature when the pressure is held constant. This leads to comparatively simple methods of reducing observed data to standard conditions.

The new methods, which may be considered exact for all practical purposes, have been used by the Navy Department for about a year, with very satisfactory results.

The report also contains a brief historical review of the important papers which have been published on the subject of performance reduction, and traces the development of the standard atmosphere.

*NACA Technical Report No. 306. Full Scale Wind-Tunnel Tests of a series of Metal Propellers on a V-E7 Airplane*, by Fred E. Weick.

This report describes an investigation made in order to determine the effect of tip speed on the characteristics of a thin-bladed metal propeller. The propeller was mounted on a V-E7 airplane with a 180-hp C-8 engine and tested in the 20 ft. propeller research tunnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. The efficiencies were found to be 104 to 7 per cent higher than those of standard wood propellers operating under the same conditions. The results are given in convenient form for use in selecting propellers for aircraft.

*NACA Technical Report No. 296. Effect of Variation of Chord and Span of Airfoils on Rolling and Yawing Moments in Level Flight*, by R. H. Hinde and D. H. Strickler.

This report presents the results of an investigation of the rolling and yawing moments due to effects of various chord and span on two airfoils having the Clark Y and U.S.A. 27 wing sections. Some attention is devoted to a study of the effect of scale on rolling and yawing moments and to the effect of slightly exceeding the wing tips.

The results apply to level flight with the wing chord set at an angle of attack of 4°-6° and at conditions of zero pitch zero yaw, and zero roll of the airplane. It is planned later to extend the investigation to other airfoils for monoplane and biplane configurations.

The work was conducted in the 10-ft. wind tunnel of the Bureau of Standards on models of 60 in. span and 10 in. chord.

*Department of Commerce, Bureau of Standards Circular No. 260. Soundproofing of Airplane Cabins*, by V. L. Charder and H. F. Snyder.

The article contains a report of the work done in determining the structure which will give the maximum amount of sound insulation in an airplane cabin for a maximum weight.

Various small structures were tested at frequencies varying from 150 to 1,120 cycles per second to determine the best insulation available within the allowable limit of weight.

A test flight was made in a treated cabin to determine how satisfactory the structure was under operating conditions. It was found that the noise in the cabin was approximately the same as that in the interior of a real wing coach in excess.

*NACA Technical Report No. 308. Full Scale Tests on a Thin Metal Propeller at Various Tip Speeds*, by Fred E. Weick.

This report describes an investigation made in order to determine the effect of tip speed on the characteristics of a thin-bladed metal propeller. The propeller was mounted on a V-E7 airplane with a 180-hp C-8 engine and tested in the 20 ft. propeller research tunnel of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. It was found that the effect of tip speed on the propulsive efficiency was negligible within the range of the tests which was from 600 to 1,000 ft. per sec. (about 0.5 to 0.9 the velocity of sound in air.)

# Relative Lift Distribution In Any Biplane

By L. V. KERBER\*

ACKNOWLEDGMENT of the distribution between the upper and lower wings of the total lift of a biplane is necessary in the solution of two aerofoil design problems, one of an aeronautical and the other of an aircraft engineer. In the aeronautical problem of a biplane airfoil, the relative loading on the wings has a marked influence on the stresses in the span. In the computation of the performance of a biplane, the induced drag of the airfoil is a major factor. Prandtl<sup>1</sup> has shown how it depends on the lift distribution, and gave particular solutions for minimum induced drag on the assumption that lift distribution is proportional to area distribution. A recent report<sup>2</sup> gave a general solution of Prandtl's equation for any lift distribution.

Numerous wind-tunnel tests of lift distributions have been made on models of equal span, equal-chord biplanes with various combinations of gap/chord and stagger. With this empirical data as a basis, theoretical considerations permit a solution for biplanes with unequal spans and unequal chords, and with or without destrage. In the present report, charts are derived which yield quick solutions of the general cases. Three regimes of the polar are treated: that is, 25, 50 and 50 per cent of  $c_0^2/\alpha$  maximum. The importance for the airfoil performance analysis case, for the determination of a transonic airfoil, is that it induced drag parabolically increases, and for the high incidence stress analysis case, respectively. The relative loading on the upper and lower wings,  $r$ , is first given as graphed form for various values of  $\alpha$ , the ratio of chords, and for  $r$ , the ratio of spanwise load on entry. Then a formula is derived which allows the interpolation of  $r$ , less than unity. Finally, a graphical solution gives a correction to  $r$  for the effect of destrage. The variables are the ratio of the gap to the chord of the upper wing,  $r_1$ , stagger, destrage, and  $\alpha$ , the proportion of the total lift contributed by the upper wing. The effect of viscosity in gap/span is considered as probably negligible, and the omission of this variable greatly simplifies the whole problem.

## The Basic Data

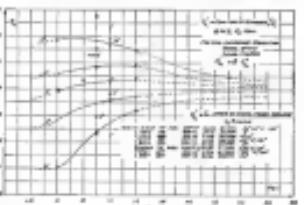
In the past eight years, quite a number of isolated and limited tests have been made of the lift distribution in equal-span, equal-chord biplanes. Early, the M.A.C.A. published the results of a more systematic and comprehensive series of tests on an R.A.F. 15 biplane in which stagger and gap/chord were varied as spanwise inputs. These data are plotted in Fig. 1, together with some of the earlier data, in the basic form of  $c_0^2/\alpha$ .

Supplementary Professor of Applied Aeronautics, University of Michigan; Chief, Structural and Aerodynamic Section, 407th Test and Technical Division, Air Materiel Command, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio.

\*The induced drag of this biplane, R.A.F. 15, is 100.

\*\*See also Fig. 2, Studies 16, Aerodynamic Research Department, University of Michigan.

is function of the ratio  $G/c_0$  of the gap to the chord of the upper wing, and of the stagger. At any value of  $c_0$  of the biplane,  $c_0^2$  is equal to the lift coefficient of the upper divided by the lift coefficient of the biplane. The data previously used to fit the test data, which show a wide dispersion, are the M.A.C.A. data were given more weight than the older approximate formulas for models at lower test velocities. Two theoretical considerations simplify the fitting. First, at larger values of  $G/c_0$ , the  $c_0^2$  values went approach unity, and that for all values of stagger. Second, when the gap is zero, the two wings coincide and  $c_0^2 = 1$  again unity. Thus



this is true can also be deduced when the gap is taken smaller and smaller until the lower wing passes through the upper, when the gap may be considered negligible. The upper wing now becomes the lower, and we must plot values of  $c_0^2 = 2 - c_0^2$  (as in Fig. 1) on the left-hand side of  $G/c_0 = zero$ . The only possible continuous function is the one which passes through  $c_0^2 = zero$  at  $G/c_0 = zero$ .

With these considerations in mind and by careful crossplotting of the data for values of  $G/c_0 = constant$ , the curves of Fig. 1 were drawn as probably most representative of the actual conditions in an R.A.F. 15 biplane. Figs. 2 and 3 experience similar data at other values of  $c_0^2/\alpha_{max}$ .

Values of  $c_0^2$  derived from the data as  $r$  is the Air Corps Handbook for Designers<sup>3</sup> have been plotted in Figs. 1 and 2 for comparison with the new data and theoretical curves, that is, they are just as accurate at high as at low values of  $r$ , respectively, and the old experimental data had been properly fitted.

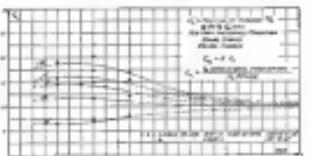
It is regretted that more extensive tests of the U.S.A. thick section No. 5 were not made, as the data observed at  $G/c_0 = 0.9$  not only do not check the R.A.F. 15 data.

\*\*See also Fig. 2, Studies 16, Aerodynamic Research Department, University of Michigan.

but the great change in  $c_0^2$  from stagger  $-30$  deg. to zero stagger in conjunction with the change from zero stagger to stagger  $-30$  deg. appears highly improbable. Just why the relative loading at a certain  $c_0$  value should be expected to show any appreciable variation with the airfoil thickness or number is not clear.

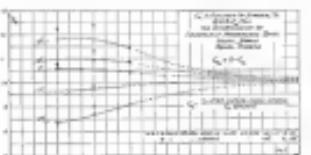
## The Relative Loading

The relative loading is designated by  $r$  and is the ratio of the lift coefficient of the upper to the lift coefficient of the lower wing.



the lower wing. It is used directly in the stress analysis of wings. The present data are based on older tests on equal-span, equal-chord biplanes, but have been conveniently used for unequal chords and spans and for both the high and low incidence conditions. In this report empirical-theoretical data are given for 25 per cent and 50 per cent  $c_0^2/\alpha$  for stress analysis purposes.

The relative loading can also be used to determine  $L/L$ , the lift of the upper wing divided by the total lift. This ratio has been designated as in A.C.L.C. #607. Strictly speaking, this is a different value of  $r$  and using the pair, as that the induced drag curve is the envelope of a family of parabolas. But the drag is not an important factor at low  $c_0$  values, nor is it at high  $c_0$  values, which are outside the practical transonic flight range. However, at medium  $c_0$  values, where climbing covers the induced drag is a small factor, so that this report gives data on  $r$ , based on  $r$ , for  $c_0$  equal to 50 per cent  $c_0^2/\alpha$ . It is intended that the parabolas through this point be substituted for the above mentioned



envelope curve, that is, that as in A.C.L.C. #607 be computed from values in this report of  $r$  at 50 per cent  $c_0^2/\alpha$ .

## 2. Equal Span, Equal Chords ( $r = 1$ , $c_0 = c_1$ )

In this simplest case, when the areas of the upper and lower wings are equal,  $r$  may be found from the basic

data. The lift of the biplane is the sum of the lifts of the two wings. Since

$$A_1 = A_2 = \frac{A}{2}$$

$$c_1 + c_2 = 2c_0$$
(1)

In a conventional biplane having equal chords and equal spans,  $A_1$  will be greater than  $A_2$  owing to the portion of the wing cut by the fuselage. The problem is greatly simplified by neglecting this effect, which is considered negligible.

By definition,

$$c_0^2 = \frac{c_1^2}{r}$$

$$c_0^2 = \frac{c_2^2}{1-r}$$

Then,

$$c_0^2 = 2 - c_0^2$$

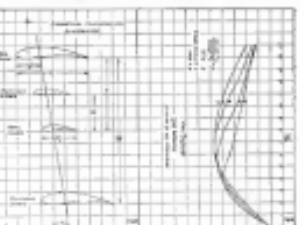
and

$$r = \frac{c_1^2}{c_0^2} = c_0^2/(2 - c_0^2)$$
(2)

$c_0^2$  is taken from Figs. 1, 2, and 3,  $r$  is computed from Equation (2) and plotted in Figs. 2, 3, and 21.

## 3. Equal Span, Unequal Chords ( $r = 1$ , $r \geq 1$ )

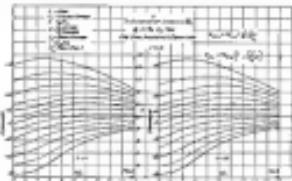
A simple theoretical consideration permits an approximate determination of this case. In Fig. 29 is a typical



viewed such a biplane in which  $c_0/c_1 = r = 0.5$ . The problem is to estimate the effect of the lower on the upper wing and of the upper on the lower wing. Since the lift is directly proportional to both area and circulation and since the circulation velocity varies inversely with the distance from the trailing wing, the same disturbance velocity results at the upper wing from the circulation set up by the trailing lower wing, twice as much as in the case of the upper as in the real lower. So if we want to find  $c_0^2$  for  $G/c_0 = 1.0$  when  $r = 0.5$ , we must take  $c_1^2$  from Fig. 1 at  $G/c_0 = 2.0$ , since we now have to consider a biplane of equal span and equal chord with twice the gap. Similarly, the effect of the upper on the lower can be approximated by placing a fictitious upper with half the chord of the real upper at twice the gap away from the lower. To find  $c_1^2 = 2 - c_0^2$ , we take  $c_1^2$  from Fig. 1, but at the original  $G/c_0$ . In general, we take

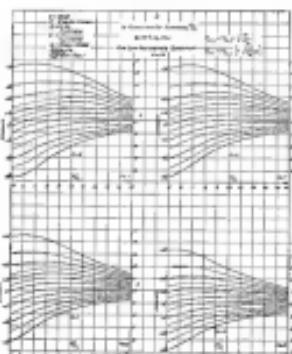
\*A table from Figures 2 or 3, at the point where  $r = 0.5$

$c_{01}^2$  from Fig. 17 at real  $G/c_{01}$ , and  $c_{02}^2 = 2 - r^2$  from Fig. 3<sup>1</sup> at real  $G/c_{02}$ . It may then be computed  $(r-1)/r^2$ . Results are given in Fig. 4 to 28 inclusive. By following the same line of reasoning, the same results are obtained for the case of the lower wing having a larger chord than the upper wing,  $r > 1$ .



In Fig. 30,  $c$  is plotted for stagger = constant and for various values of  $r < 1$  and of  $G/c_1$ .

It should be noted that a secondary effect has been neglected. The curvature of the airfoil sections at the upper wing due to the presence of the fictitious lower is less than that due to the true lower. As a consequence,



of the upper,  $r$  is greater than unity, and we have  
 $c(r > 1) = r c(r = 1) \left[ 1 - \frac{r-1}{c_{01}^2 + r-1} \right]$  (4)

#### The effect of Dihedral

The relative loading

$$\delta x = \frac{dx}{dx_0}$$

when dihedral is introduced into the airfoil can be evaluated by writing the expression for the numerator and denominator in terms of the dihedral  $\delta$ , a mean slope of the biplane lift curve  $\frac{dc}{dx}$ , the ratio  $\frac{L}{L_0}$ , a mean

1-1

Take from Figures 17 and 18 as the case is put into it.

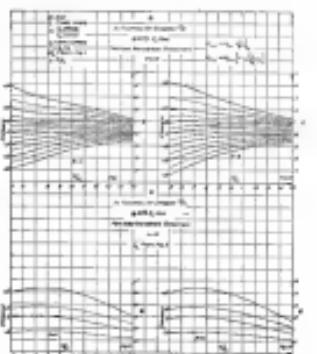
a slight increase in both numerator and denominator, the value of the quotient  $c$  is not greatly changed, and the method of that section of the report gives a good approximation to actuality.

#### 3. Unequal Spans, Unequal Chords ( $r \geq 1, x \leq 1$ )

For the solution of this case, it is assumed that the position of the upper wing directly above the chordwise lower wing is affected in the same manner as if  $L_0$  were equal to  $L_1$  (that is, as if  $r$  were 1) and that the averaging portion of the upper span is unaffected. Thus, for  $r < 1$  becomes

$$\begin{aligned} r < 1 &= \frac{r c_{01}^2 + (1-r)}{c_{02}^2} \\ &= \frac{r c_{01}^2}{c_{02}^2} + \frac{1-r}{2-r} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

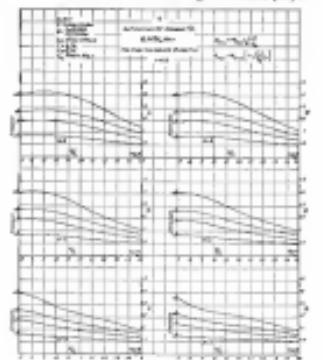
When the span of the lower wing is greater than the



and the values of  $c_{01}^2$  and  $c_{02}^2$  for  $\delta = 0$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{c_{02}^2}{c_{01}^2} = c_{01}^2 r_0 + \frac{2}{c_{01}^2} c_{01} \left( \frac{c_{01}}{c_{01} + c_{02}} \right) \\ &= c_{02}^2 r_0 + \frac{2}{c_{01}^2} c_{01} \left( \frac{c_{01}}{c_{01} + c_{02}} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

This is derived by considering that the total liftage is distributed between the two wings in inverse proportion to the areas.



to the portion of the total lift which each carries. The angle of attack of the upper thus changes by an amount  $\frac{c_{01}}{c_{01} + c_{02}} \times \delta$ , and the lift coefficient changes by  $c_{01} \frac{dc}{dx}$  times that amount.  $c_{01} \delta x_0$  is equal to the lift coefficient,  $c_{01}$  of the upper when no dihedral is present. But

$$\frac{c_{01}}{c_{01} + c_{02}} = \delta = \frac{L_0}{L}$$

Substituting and simplifying,

$$\delta x = \delta \left[ \frac{1 + \delta \frac{c_{01}}{c_{02}} \frac{(1-\delta)}{\delta}}{1 + \delta \frac{c_{01}}{c_{02}} \frac{\delta}{c_{01}}} \right]$$

This can also be written

$$\frac{\delta x}{\delta} = \left[ \frac{1 + \frac{\delta (1-\delta)}{c_{02} \times \text{per cent } c_{01}}}{1 - \frac{\delta \delta}{c_{02} \times \text{per cent } c_{01}}} \right] \quad (7)$$

A mean value of  $\frac{dc}{dx}$  for biplanes of 0.000175 has been assumed, and Equation (7) plotted in Fig. 28 for values of dihedral of  $\delta$  in deg in function of  $c_{01}$  times per cent  $c_{01}$ , and  $\delta$ . It was necessary in the

determination of  $\delta$  to use the value of the relative loading,  $c$ , when  $\delta = 0$ . This introduces an error of  $\pm 2$  per cent in extreme cases. If this error is considered too great, a second approximation may be made, taking

$$\delta = \frac{c_{01} \delta_1}{c_{01} + \delta_1} \quad (8)$$

A third approximation is entirely unnecessary.

#### Symbols

The following symbols are used in this paper:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta &= \delta_0 + \delta_1 \\ \delta_0 &= \text{Effective area of upper wing} & 50 \text{ per cent of } \\ \delta_1 &= \text{Effective area of lower wing} & 25 \text{ per cent of } \\ a &= \text{Dihedral of total lift distributed by upper wing} \\ b_0 &= \text{Span of upper wing} \\ b_1 &= \text{Span of lower wing} \\ c_0 &= \text{Chord of upper wing (Mean aerodynamic)} \\ c_0^{18} &= \text{Chord of lower wing (Mean aerodynamic)} \\ c_1 &= \text{Lift coefficient of the biplane} \\ c_{01} &= \text{Lift coefficient of the upper wing in the biplane} \\ c_{02} &= \text{Lift coefficient of the lower wing in the biplane} \\ c_{01}^2 &= c_{01}/b_0 \\ c_{02}^2 &= c_{02}/b_1 \\ x &= c_0 \text{ chord} \\ x_0 &= c_1 \text{ chord} \\ G^{18} &= \text{Gap (Analysiss)} \\ L &= \text{Lift of the biplane} \\ L_0 &= \text{Lift of the upper wing in the biplane} \\ r &= \text{Span ratio, } b_0/b_1 \\ \delta c &= \text{Chord ratio, } c_0/c_1 \\ \text{Stagger}^{\text{eff}} &= \text{Angle measured between a line connecting the three points of the mean aerodynamic chord of the upper and lower wings, and a line perpendicular to the mean aerodynamic chord of the upper wing} \\ \delta &= \text{Angle of dihedral} \end{aligned}$$

#### Determination of $c_{01}$

The value of  $c_{01}$ , the relative efficiency of the upper wing with respect to the lower wing for the four possible combinations of equal span and dihedral, is obtained in the manner indicated for each case.

**Case I—Equal spans, equal chord, no dihedral**  
 $\delta = 0$   
 $c$  is taken directly from Figs. 5, 13, or 21, as the case may be.

**Case II—Equal spans, unequal chords, no dihedral**  
 $\delta = 1$   
 $c$  is taken directly from Figs. 4 to 27, as the case may be.

**Case III—Equal spans, equal chord, no dihedral**  
 $\delta = 1$   
 $c$  is taken directly from Figs. 17 and 18, as the case may be.

<sup>1-1</sup>  $\delta$  is the dihedral,  $c_0$  and  $c_1$  are the mean aerodynamic chord ratios of the upper and lower wings, and  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  are the mean chord lengths of the upper and lower wings. The dihedral is measured by the total chord difference as projected and the mean chord of chordwise sections is subtracted.

Case III—Unequal spans, unequal chords, no decalage.

$$\begin{aligned} r &\geq 1 \\ s &\geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

1. Determine  $r$  for  $r = 1$  from Figs. 4 to 27, at the case may be.

2. Determine  $\alpha_0^2$  from Figs. 1, 2, or 3, as required.

3. Determine  $r$  for  $r \geq 1$  from the following relation:

$$\begin{aligned} a. \quad r(r < 1) &= r \cdot r(r = 1) + \frac{1-r}{2-c_0} \\ b. \quad r(r > 1) &= r \cdot r(r = 1) \left[ 1 - \frac{r-1}{1-c_0 + r} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Case IV—Case I, II, or III with decalage.

1. Determine  $r$  for no decalage as above.

$$2. \text{ Calculate } a \text{ for no decalage from } a = \frac{c_0}{c_0 + A_0}$$

3. Determine  $\frac{a_0}{r}$  from Fig. 28.

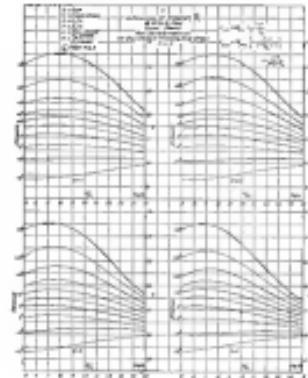
4. Calculate  $\alpha_0$  from Equation (3) (first approximation).

$$5. \text{ Recalculate } a \text{ from } a = \frac{a_0 \cdot A_0}{a_0 + A_0}$$

6. Determine  $\frac{a_0}{r}$  from Fig. 28.

7. Calculate  $\alpha_0$  from Equation 6 (second approximation).

(For use in charts of A.C.I.C. 607, the second approximation for  $a$  must be used.)



#### Answers

The lift distribution in representative biplane airfoils is solved in the following according to the formulas and charts of this paper:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Case I—Equal spans, equal chords, no decalage.} \\ \text{Span—Upper wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Span—Lower wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Chord—Upper wing} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{c_0\} \\ \text{Chord—Lower wing} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{c_0\} \\ \text{Gap} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{G\} \\ \text{Decalage} &= +18 \text{ deg.} \\ r &= b_0/b_0 = 1 \\ s &= c_0/c_0 = 1 \\ G/c_0 &= 60/60 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

From Fig. 5,  $r = 1.195$  (low incidence).

From Fig. 13,  $r = 1.21$  (high incidence).

From Fig. 21,  $r = 1.210$  (For determination of equivalent monoplane span).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Case II—Equal spans, unequal chords, no decalage.} \\ \text{Span—Upper wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Span—Lower wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Chord—Upper wing} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{c_0\} \\ \text{Chord—Lower wing} &= 30 \text{ in. } \{c_1\} \\ \text{Gap} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{G\} \\ \text{Decalage} &= +15 \text{ deg.} \\ r &= b_0/b_0 = 1 \\ s &= c_0/c_0 = 0.5 \\ G/c_0 &= 60/30 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

From Fig. 10,  $r = 1.128$  (For low incidence).

From Fig. 28,  $r = 1.150$  (For high incidence).

From Fig. 36,  $r = 1.152$  (For determination of equivalent monoplane span).

Case III—Unequal spans, unequal chords, no decalage.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Span—Upper wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Span—Lower wing} &= 20 \text{ ft. } \{b_1\} \\ \text{Chord—Upper wing} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{c_0\} \\ \text{Chord—Lower wing} &= 30 \text{ in. } \{c_1\} \\ \text{Gap} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{G\} \\ \text{Decalage} &= +25 \text{ deg.} \\ r &= b_0/b_1 = 20/10 = 2 \\ s &= c_0/c_1 = 60/30 = 2 \\ G/c_1 &= 60/30 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

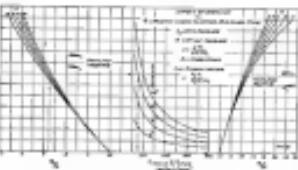
From Fig. 10,  $r(r = 1) = 1.121$  (For low incidence).

From Fig. 1,  $\alpha_0^2 = 1.090$  (For equal chords and equal spans).

$$\begin{aligned} r(r < 1) &= r(r = 1) + \frac{1-r}{2-c_0} \\ &= 0.5 \times 1.121 + \left( \frac{1-0.5}{2-1.090} \right) \\ &= 0.900 + \frac{0.5}{0.910} \\ &= 0.900 + 0.549 \end{aligned}$$

$r(r < 1) = 1.129$  for the low incidence condition.

The value of  $r$  for the high incidence condition and for the determination of the equivalent monoplane span



may be determined in the same manner by the use of the proper charts.

Case IV—Case I, II, or III with decalage.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area upper wing} &= 200 \text{ sq. ft. } \{A_0\} \\ \text{Area lower wing} &= 45 \text{ sq. ft. } \{A_1\} \text{ (Includes 20} \\ &\text{per cent fuselage and 25} \\ &\text{per cent nacelle)} \\ \text{Span upper wing} &= 40 \text{ ft. } \{b_0\} \\ \text{Span lower wing} &= 20 \text{ ft. } \{b_1\} \\ \text{Chord upper wing} &= 60 \text{ in. } \{c_0\} \\ \text{Chord lower wing} &= 30 \text{ in. } \{c_1\} \end{aligned}$$

#### TECHNICAL PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

N.A.C.A. Technical Note No. 304, Correlation Between Results of Wind Tunnel Tests of Wings and Aerodynamic Properties of Wings, by Harry S. Randall, Bureau of Standards.

N.A.C.A. Technical Memorandum No. 936, Impact Waves and Detonation, by R. Brode, Part I, From Zeitschrift für Physik, Volume VIII.

N.A.C.A. Technical Memorandum No. 304, Mathematical Control of Aeroplanes, by H. Bayton. From the 1937 yearbook of the Wissenschaftliche Gesellschaft für Luftfahrt.

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Royal Aeronautical Society, Aircraft-Body Interface, a paper by C. N. H. Lovell, M. A.



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